

THE BUILDING OF THE MODERN WORLD

BY

J. A. BRENDON, B.A., F.R.Hist.S.

BOOK III

THE EXPANSION OF EUROPE

WITH MAPS ~~AND~~ ILLUSTRATIONS

LONDON

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THE BUILDING OF THE MODERN WORLD

BY

J. A. BRENDON,

B.A., F.R.HIST.S.

I.—THE CHILDHOOD OF THE WEST-
ERN NATIONS (300-1453)

II.—THE AGE OF DISCOVERY (1453-
1660)

III.—THE EXPANSION OF EUROPE
(1660-1795)

IV.—SINCE 1789

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PREFACE

There was a time when "history," as a school subject, meant English history. That time is past; it no longer satisfies educational requirements that the makers of to-morrow should read the records only of their own race. But general history, to be brought within the bounds of an already overcrowded curriculum, must be ruthlessly compressed; and there is a danger that to many boys and girls it may appear either as a collection of disconnected incidents or as a wearisome chronicle of facts. This little book and its three companion volumes have been designed to meet the danger, and it is hoped that they will help to defeat it.

The writer has not attempted to add to the list of existing text-books another series of the strictly conventional type. At the same time he has aimed at producing something more than story books. His purpose has been to describe simply and suggestively—in the form of a continuous narrative—"the building of the Modern World"; and if he has succeeded in showing, in broad outline, how the descendants of the barbarian invaders, who broke into and demolished the Roman Empire of old, came to raise that civilization of which we are the heirs, he will consider his purpose fully achieved.

The first book of the series covers the period between the decline of the Western (Roman) Empire and the close of the Middle Ages: the second describes the political, social and religious changes which resulted from the

Revival of Learning in Europe and from the discoveries of the famous navigators of that time : the third deals with the expansion of Europe in the eighteenth century and with the struggle for supremacy which then engaged the Powers : in the fourth the story of " the building of the Modern World " is brought down to our own day. The books are well provided with maps ; and the illustrations, it is believed, will prove of real educational value. Each volume contains a Chronological Chart which will enable the student to see at a glance the relation between the chief events which occurred in different countries.

February, 1925.

J. A. B.

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THE EXPANSION OF EUROPE

CHAPTER I

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV

1.—THE *GRAND MONARQUE*

From the beginning of the sixteenth century until the middle of the seventeenth, princes of the house of Hapsburg—the rulers of the dominions of Austria and Spain—held the central place on the European stage. Princes of the Bourbon family, the royal house of France, then assumed that position. Cardinal Richelieu, in whose hands King Louis XIII for eighteen years (1624–42) left the governance of his realm, made France the most powerful State in Europe, and invested the French Crown with an influence such as no other monarchy of modern times has enjoyed.

In 1643 Louis XIII followed his great minister to the grave. His five-year-old son succeeded to the throne. This prince, Louis XIV, was fated to be king for seventy-two years, and, as the *Grand Monarque*, to raise France to the summit of her fame.

While Louis was a child, his mother acted as Regent. The real governor of the country, however, was an Italian churchman, Cardinal Mazarin. The Regent, won over by the cardinal's graceful manners, made him chief officer of State.

Mazarin, a master of intrigue, cold, callous and cat-like in his manner, was universally hated in France. His crooked ways were detestable to an open-hearted people.

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Yet he served his adopted country well ; and, though he had little of the genius of Richelieu, he faithfully carried on the work that statesman had begun. To the aggrandisement of France and to the strengthening of the French Crown he devoted all his energies.

Taking advantage of Mazarin's unpopularity, certain of the nobles, in 1648, organized a revolt against the Government. If they could drive the cardinal from office, they hoped to be able to regain some of the powers which Richelieu had taken from them. But the *Fronde*, as this rebellion is known, did not become a national movement. The people saw through the design of the nobles, and they had suffered too long under the tyranny of petty lords to wish for a restoration of feudal conditions. By 1653 the *Fronde*—the last rising of a discontented nobility in France—had been finally stamped out. Thereafter until his death, which occurred in 1661, Mazarin was supreme in the land.

On the day following the cardinal's death, the various secretaries of State petitioned the King that they might know whose authority they were then to accept. To their astonishment, Louis replied that they must take orders only from him. "In future," he said, "I shall be my own prime minister" (*"Je serai à l'avenir mon premier ministre"*).

For fifty-four years King Louis laboriously filled the dual rôle of sovereign and chief officer of State. Having taken up what he called "the trade of king," he worked at his desk for six hours each day ; and neither his love of amusement, nor even illness, ever prevented him performing his regular duties.

"We are not private persons," he observed on one occasion ; "we owe ourselves to the public."

* "*L'état, c'est moi*" ("I am the State"). So runs a saying attributed to Louis XIV. It sums up exactly his idea of monarchy.

The *Grand Monarque* regarded himself as the embodiment of the power and greatness of France, and he was convinced that he had been raised to his exalted position by the will of God. Kings, he maintained, were God's lieutenants on earth. Therefore, it behoved people to obey without criticism the rulers put over them. If their king were a good king, they should thank God for His mercies; if their king were a bad king, they should bear misrule with patience, remembering that God had so chosen to punish them for their sins.

The *Grand Monarque* did not invent the theory of "the divine right of kings." It had long been gaining adherents in certain quarters in Europe. James I (1603-25) tried to introduce it into England.

The English people refused to acknowledge it, and constitutional usage rendered it impossible for King James to substantiate his claims. Denied the power of raising revenue without the consent of Parliament, and denied the power of arbitrary arrest,¹ the King could not make himself absolute.

James's successor, Charles I (1625-49), tried to violate constitutional usage by imposing a tax, called "ship-money." This, he hoped, would enable him to maintain the Navy without being put to the necessity of summoning Parliament. A country gentleman, John Hampden, chose to suffer arrest (1637) rather than pay his share of the tax. The judges decided against Hampden. But the people knew that the judges in the case were creatures of the king and so strong was public feeling that Parliament reversed the judgment.

Hampden's case was one of the causes of the Civil War which cost King Charles his throne and his head.

French kings laboured under no such restrictions as law and custom imposed upon the kings of England. They did not require parliamentary sanction for the raising of money. They were able, therefore, to free themselves of parliamentary control. In 1661, when Louis XIV took up the reins of government, the Estates

¹ The reader is referred to Clause 39 of *Magna Carta*—the second of the three paragraphs copied from the original charter on page 152 of Book I of this series.

General, or national parliament of France, had not been summoned for forty-seven years. A hundred and twenty-eight years were to elapse before, in 1789 (page 177), it was summoned again.

The individual in France, moreover, enjoyed none of those liberties which *Magna Carta*, and other contracts between the monarchy and the people, assured to the individual in England. The Crown enforced an elaborate system of espionage throughout the country and, right down to the time of the Revolution, *lettres de cachet*—or royal warrants for the imprisonment or exile of persons, without trial—were freely issued.

The famous case of "the Man with the Iron Mask" may be cited to illustrate the absolutism of the Bourbon monarchs. In 1672, a man was arrested at Peronne, by order of King Louis XIV, and thrown into the Bastille, the prison-fortress of Paris, the French counterpart of the Tower of London. This man, though never tried, was kept a prisoner for thirty years—until his death (1703).

For the better concealment of his identity, he was provided with a mask—not really of iron, but of black velvet. This he had always to wear, and—by day and by night—two musketeers were posted near him with orders to shoot him at once should he ever try to unmask.

Who was this man? Volumes have been written on the subject, but the problem of the prisoner's identity is still unsolved.

A courtier, greatly daring, once ventured to ask Louis XIV to tell him whose head it was the mask concealed. "If you knew," said the king, "you would not find it in the least interesting."

Apart from constitutional reasons, political reasons induced the French, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, to submit to an autocratic system intolerable to their northern neighbours. France, a continental country, was hemmed in by enemies, ready to take advantage of any sign of weakness. Britain—Shakespeare's "scepter'd isle . . . set in the silver sea"¹—was comparatively safe from foreign aggression. The people, therefore, in defence of their individual liberties, could afford to indulge in internal dissension, without endangering their national security.

¹ *King Richard II*, Act II, Scene 1.



THE BASTILLE: THE FAMOUS PRISON-FORTRESS OF PARIS

Lent by T. H. Parker, 12a Berkeley Street, London, W.1.

This picture, copied from an old print, shows the Bastille as it was in the days of Louis XIV. Built in the fourteenth century, it originally formed part of the fortifications of Paris. Richelieu converted it into a State prison; as such it continued to be used till 1789, when it was stormed by the mob (page 182). In the Middle Ages the term "bastille" was commonly applied to fortified towers.

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Personalities, again, count for much in such matters. About James of England, a pedantic scholar with a slouching gait and insufferable manners, there was very little of the divinely appointed prince; the French king, Henry of Navarre (Louis XIV's grandfather), described him as "the wisest fool in Christendom." Louis XIV, on the other hand, was the very embodiment of majesty. Wrote a contemporary English statesman, Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke (1678-1751): "If he was not the greatest king, he was the best actor of majesty, at least, that ever filled a throne."

When Mazarin died, Louis was in his twenty-third year. Though somewhat below middle height, he was well proportioned and strikingly handsome. A young man who said neither too little nor too much, he was always calm and dignified. His manners and carriage were above criticism. He was an admirable horseman, and a graceful dancer; even when playing billiards, we are told, he retained an air of absolute mastery.

Endowed with all the gifts necessary to the kingly rôle, Louis jealously guarded them. How, in his later years, majesty fought with age, Thackeray—the famous English novelist (1811-63), who was almost as clever with his pencil as with his pen—has shown us in the sketch reproduced on the opposite page.

2.—HOW KING LOUIS XIV RULED

The *Grand Monarque* lived amid surroundings in keeping with his own conception of his office. As his royal residence, he caused to be erected, on the outskirts of Paris, the palace of Versailles. This gorgeous building still fills the visitor with wonder. Thousands of soldiers were employed for several years in its construction without receiving any wages apart from their pay. Even so, it cost the French nation at least £40,000,000. Round it was laid out a town where might dwell those privileged

to be near to, or to supply the wants of, the majesty of France.

After the suppression of the *Fronde* (page 10), Mazarin deprived the nobility of the few remnants of political power that Richelieu had left to them. Under Louis XIV, though a favoured class—exempt from certain taxes and various disabilities which commoners had to bear—they exercised no authority. Noblemen whose ancestors had been sovereigns on their domains, with the right of



THE KING

LOUIS

KING LOUIS

From the drawing by W. M. Thackeray in his "Paris Sketch Book."

making laws and meting out justice, were content to become mere personal servants of the king, deeming it a high honour should they be chosen to wait on their royal master at dinner, or to help him while he dressed in the morning.

As many as 15,000 titled courtiers lived at Versailles in idle luxury. The gaiety and extravagance of life at Court appealed to them as strongly as the tedium of life at "our Court of St. James's"—in the eighteenth century, at any rate—repelled the noblemen of England. So it came about that, while the latter interested them-

selves mainly in the development of their estates, French nobles shamefully neglected theirs. Indeed, they rarely went near their lands, so long as their agents duly collected the rents. This was one of the reasons why, as the eighteenth century wore on, "aristocrats" came to be hated by the peasants of France.

Louis XIV was extravagant, but he was no mere spendthrift. Though he claimed wide prerogatives, he used power wisely—at any rate, during the early years of his rule. His administrative reforms were a real benefit to the community; and, by fostering trade and manufactures, he enormously increased both the national revenue and the prosperity of the people.

At this time Jean Colbert (1619–83) was his principal assistant. Colbert, the son of a linen draper of Reims, began his career as a junior clerk in a Government office. One day his financial ability attracted the notice of Mazarin. After that his promotion was rapid. He soon became the cardinal's most trusted secretary.

Said Mazarin to his king when the latter visited him as he lay on his death-bed: "Sir, I owe everything to you, but I think I can in some measure repay you by giving you Colbert." As "Superintendent of Finances," Colbert served his new chief with the same devotion that he had shown to the old; and he was the initiator of most of King Louis' reforms.

Colbert is to be remembered as the founder of the economic theory known as "protection."

His aim was to make France self-supporting, and, while restricting the import of foreign goods by means of tariffs, or duties, to encourage the export of manufactures. This, he argued, would bring gold and silver into the country, and so enrich the people.

Colbert's theory has been widely adopted in the modern world. Yet its soundness is open to question; economists hold very different views on the subject. It cannot be denied, however, that French industries were enormously developed under a protective system—particularly the making of silk and other costly fabrics, and of glass. With these things France still fills the markets of the world.

To Colbert, again, may be attributed the rise of the French empire in the West Indies and West Africa. It was at his instigation, moreover, that King Louis, in 1664, incorporated the famous French East India Company which, for a hundred years and more (page 143), was to battle for dominion in India with that still more famous "Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies," which Queen Elizabeth incorporated in 1600.

The French East India Company strove also to wrest from the Dutch their trade monopoly in the spice-islands of the Malay archipelago. To further French interests in those parts Louis XIV tried to conclude an alliance with Siam. Wishing, however, to demonstrate to the world his determination to advance the Christian faith, he insisted that the king of Siam should become a Christian.

The Siamese king refused to renounce the religion which his ancestors had held since time immemorial. None the less, he gave French missionaries a free hand in his kingdom; he also allowed French engineers to fortify, and French troops to garrison, several places on the coast. This was the beginning of the French empire in Indo-China.

While Colbert held office schemes were put in hand for the opening up of Louisiana, the country round the mouth of the Mississippi. At the same time, the settling of Canada by Frenchmen was seriously undertaken.

Canada—which in those days meant simply the valley of the St. Lawrence—had been in French hands since the middle years of the sixteenth century, and in 1608 Samuel Champlain, a Breton sailor, founded the city of Quebec. But the country did not really become a sphere of French settlement until about 1665.

To provide Canada with a European population, King Louis XIV shipped across the Atlantic a regiment of infantry which he settled in the vicinity of Quebec in *seigneuries*, laid out on semi-feudal lines; the officers became *seigneurs*, or lords, and the men their tenants.¹ Next, he gave orders for suitable girls to be recruited from all parts of France. These maidens were sent to Canada in

¹ Several of the villages in the district still bear the names of members of this corps—the "Carignan-Salières" regiment.

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charge of nuns ; and at Quebec, under the supervision of the State, was established a regular matrimonial agency. All bachelors were required to take wives ; those who neglected to do so were forbidden to fish and hunt or to trade with the natives, and were made subject to other disabilities.

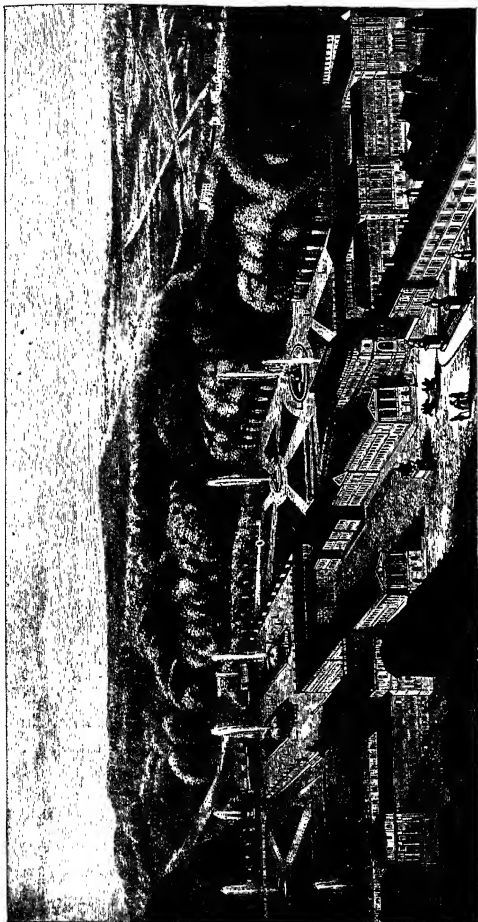
The British dominions overseas have been reared from seeds. The French adopted a different method. In North America they tried to establish a fully-grown plant. King Louis XIV lopped off a bough of old France and transplanted it. The bough at once burst into bloom. Boughs so transplanted often do that. But do they often take root ? The royal gardener did not consider this botanical question. He was immensely gratified by the spectacular results of his efforts.

So, in the mind of the king, gradually took shape a grandiose scheme for linking Louisiana and Canada by a chain of forts along the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, then of closing in upon the British settlements along the coast, and so bringing the whole of North America into his Empire. Thus arose yet another pretext for that rivalry between France and Britain which, to a large extent, is the history of the eighteenth century.

Just as the English in the Age of Elizabeth, and the Dutch after they had freed themselves from Spanish rule,¹ gave expression to their awakened national consciousness in an extraordinary outburst of literary and artistic activity, so did the French in the Age of Louis XIV. To this period belong Nicolas Poussin (1594–1665), the painter ; La Fontaine (1621–95), the inimitable fabulist ; Pascal (1623–62), the philosopher ; Boileau (1636–1711), the poet ; and a hundred other illustrious men, including Corneille (1606–85), Molière (1622–73), and Racine (1639–99), three of the greatest of French dramatists.

Molière was the son of a furniture dealer. His real name was Jean Baptiste Pocquelin : Molière was the name under which he wrote his plays, his *nom de plume*. That the dramatist might not lack money, the king gave

¹ The story of the Revolt of the Netherlands is told in Book II of this series, Chapter VII.



THE CHÂTEAU OF VERSAILLES

Designed by Louis XIV as his royal residence, this magnificent palace was built between 1661 and 1687; it is said to have cost £40,000,000. Versailles lies on the south-western outskirts of Paris. In the famous Hall of Mirrors, one of the apartments of the palace, was signed the peace treaty which concluded the Great War (June 28, 1919).

him a titular but lucrative appointment at Court. In this way, or by granting pensions, Louis XIV generously rewarded men of talent.

3.—“*LES LIMITES NATURELLES*”

An object of adoring flattery, the cynosure of the civilized world, the *Grand Monarque* at length allowed ambition to impel him to conquest.

Richelieu had dreamed of restoring to France the boundaries which, he maintained, nature had designed for the country—“*les limites naturelles*.” These were the Rhine in the east, the Jura Mountains and the Alps in the south-east, and the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees in the south. When Louis XIV came to the throne, the dream had been partly fulfilled. France had acquired the last of Spain’s footholds north of the Pyrenees, and, by gaining Alsace, at least touched the Rhine.

This was not enough for the *Grand Monarque*. He resolved to make the rest of the dream also a fact. In the hope of achieving his object, he engaged in four great wars. These are known as:—

1. The War of Devolution (1667–8).
2. The War with the Dutch (1672–8).
3. The War of the League of Augsburg (1688–97).
4. The War of the Spanish Succession (1701–14).

In 1659, Mazarin arranged a marriage between his young master and Maria Theresa, a daughter of Philip IV, King of Spain (see the table facing page 40). At the time it did not seem possible that King Philip’s only son (afterwards Charles II), a man weak in body and imbecile in mind, could live for long. In arranging the marriage, therefore, Mazarin had in view the ulterior purpose of uniting Spain with France.

The Spaniards were anxious to guard against this contingency. So it was made a condition of the marriage that Louis XIV, on behalf of his queen and of any children she might bear to him, should formally renounce all

claim to territories which owed allegiance to Spain.

In 1667, soon after the death of Philip IV, the French king—despite the undertaking, and without even waiting for Charles II to die—laid claim, in his wife's name, to the Spanish Netherlands (now Belgium), and invaded that country at the head of a powerful army.

In the hope of justifying his action in the eyes of Europe, Louis added hypocrisy to violence. According to the *Jus Devolutionis* (the Law of Devolution), a local custom obtaining in Brabant, one of the provinces of the Netherlands, property passed to the daughter of a first marriage in preference to the son of a second. Maria Theresa was the daughter of King Philip's first marriage: Charles II was the son of his second marriage. Had King Philip, therefore, in his private capacity, bought a farm in Brabant, that farm rightly would have passed to Maria Theresa. But for Louis XIV to assert that the sovereignty of the Netherlands followed the rule of land tenure in the province of Brabant was sheer hypocrisy.

Spain was in no position to resist the pretensions of the French king. City after city in the Spanish Netherlands fell into Louis' hands, and his armies must soon have overrun the whole country had not the Dutch, alarmed by the prospect of having France as a neighbour, persuaded England¹ and Sweden to join them in a triple alliance in support of the Spaniards.

King Louis then saw that he had gone far enough. In 1668 he came to terms with his enemies, and signed the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which secured to France a strip of territory along the western frontier of the Netherlands. Earlier in the year he had come to a secret understanding with the Emperor Leopold for the partition of the Spanish heritage. For the present, therefore, he was content with his small theft. None the less, he determined in his heart

¹ The second of the two wars between England and Holland, which resulted from Cromwell's Navigation Act (see Book II of this series, page 145), had just been ended by the Treaty of Breda of 1667. During the Anglo-Dutch War of 1665-7, a Dutch fleet, commanded by the redoubtable Admiral de Ruyter, sailed up the Thames and burned the dockyard and ships at Chatham. The terms of peace, however, were not unfavourable to England, for the Dutch surrendered their North American colony, New Affsterdam, then renamed New York.

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to take a terrible revenge upon the Dutch who had dared to thwart his plans.

For four years (1668-72), King Louis made it the first aim of French diplomacy to isolate Holland. From Spain and the Emperor he had little to fear. The Swedes and the English were the probable supporters of the Dutch with whom he had seriously to reckon.

Eventually he induced the Swedes to give a guarantee of neutrality. In England his diplomacy proved even more successful. Charles II was then on the throne of England. The "merry monarch" shared Louis XIV's ideas regarding "the divine right of kings," and, a Roman Catholic at heart, was anxious to restore his kingdom to the Roman Church. While he was dependent on Parliament for money, he saw that he could not hope to achieve his designs. So he sold himself to Louis and, by a secret pact, known as the Treaty of Dover (1670), pledged himself to assist France in destroying Holland in return for an annual subsidy of £200,000. At the same time, Louis promised to help Charles to suppress any rebellion that might break out when he declared himself a Catholic.

In 1672, Louis mobilized 176,000 men, under the command of Condé and Turenne, the two leading generals of the day. On April 6 he caused a medal to be struck to commemorate the victory he was about to win.¹ On the same day he launched his carefully prepared attack.

The Dutch were taken unawares; and, though their fleet, led by the famous admiral, De Ruyter, held its own in the Channel against the combined naval forces of England and France, the invader quickly overran their land. In June they sued for peace, offering to surrender a large tract of territory, and to pay an indemnity of 6,000,000 livres.²

¹ The medal represents the beams of the sun dispersing vapours from a marsh, and bears the inscription, *Evexi sed discutiam*.

² The *livre* was an old French coin equivalent, roughly, to the franc, by which it was superseded in 1795.

The French king haughtily rejected the offer. He insisted on a larger surrender of territory and an indemnity of 24,000,000 livres. Also he demanded that Roman Catholics should be accorded freedom of worship in Holland, and that the Government should send a deputation annually to Paris to thank the king of France for having restored peace to the country. This, in effect, meant the renouncement of Dutch independence, and it roused the people to savage indignation. As lately they had fought against Spain, so now they resolved to battle with France.

The revolt of the Dutch against Spain had been conducted by William, Prince of Orange—William the Silent as he is known. In 1584 the prince was assassinated, but for sixty-six years members of his family continued to control the destinies of Holland. Then, on the death of William the Silent's grandson, William II, the people—thinking themselves to be secure from foreign aggression—decided to adopt a more democratic form of government. From 1650 to 1672, John de Witt, leader of the republican party, was the chief power in the land.

De Witt was a clever statesman, but he neglected the defences of the country. Knowing the army to be devoted to the house of Orange, he deliberately weakened it, and so played into the hands of Louis XIV. At the time of the French invasion, the people turned against the leader who had thus brought disaster on them. In 1672, De Witt was murdered, and a prince of the house of Orange, William III—soon to become William III of England also—was called to the head of affairs.

This William was neither a brilliant statesman nor a brilliant soldier. It has been said of him that he lost more battles than any other general known to history. But he came of an heroic race and, like William the Silent, he knew not the meaning of the word "defeat." His advisers urged him to come to terms with King Louis: could he not see, they asked, that Holland was lost?



WILLIAM III OF ORANGE

who ruled the Netherlands from 1672 to 1702, was Louis XIV's leading opponent. In 1688, as the husband of James II's daughter, Mary, he became King of Great Britain and Ireland.

Thus William replied: "I know one means of never seeing it—to die in the last ditch."

By this time, practically the whole of Holland was in the hands of the French. Amsterdam, however, still held out. Had that city fallen, nothing could have saved the Dutch. To prevent the fall of Amsterdam, William decided on the same desperate expedient which William the Silent had adopted at the siege of Leyden in 1574 (see Book II, page 124).

A large part of Holland lies below the level of the sea ; natural sand-dunes and dykes, or artificial embankments, along the coast, keep out the hungry waters. William resolved to cut the dykes near Amsterdam, and so to allow the sea to flood the country. Once upon a time the ground on which Amsterdam was built had been an island. After the cutting of the dykes, it became an island again, and the French were forced to withdraw.

William availed himself of the respite, thus gained, to organize a coalition against France. The Emperor Leopold, distrustful of King Louis' intentions, was the first to espouse the cause of the Dutch. Other German princes followed his lead ; also Spain. In 1674, Charles II of England, rather than "go on his travels again," yielded to public opinion, and made peace with Holland.

France was thus left without an ally—save distant Sweden. Yet so efficient was her military organization that she was able to maintain the struggle for four years, and very soundly to beat her enemies each time they risked a battle. But King Louis found the war a heavy drain on his resources, and he welcomed the peace overtures which were made in 1678.

His attempt to punish the Dutch ended in failure. Under the terms of peace, Holland did not lose an acre of territory. Yet Louis had no reason to be dissatisfied with the result of the war. The Treaty of Nimwegen, signed in 1678, added to France another slice of the Spanish Netherlands. The French, in fact, acquired—to all intents and purposes—their present north-eastern frontier.

4.—THE REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES

Conquest served only to strengthen the imperious temper and arrogance of the *Grand Monarque*. During the ten years of nominal peace which followed the signing

of the Treaty of Nimwegen, Louis played the part of tyrant in Europe.

In 1681, knowing the Emperor to be fully occupied preparing to meet a threatened Turkish invasion of his territories (page 47), he seized the city of Strassburg, the last imperial stronghold in Alsace.¹ In 1684, he bombarded Genoa, because the Genoese refused to render prompt obedience to his will. In 1686, he sent an army to Savoy² to force the duke to expel the Waldenses,³ a Protestant community who had long been living there.

These high-handed acts roused bitter hatred in Europe against the domination of France. Even King Louis saw that he would soon have to fight hard if he were to maintain his position. He spared no pains, therefore, to increase the efficiency of his army and navy.

Hitherto French kings had contracted with various individuals to furnish them with soldiers. Louis XIV did away with this system. He placed the army in the charge of a separate department of State—a War Office—which he made responsible for the equipping, clothing, paying, and victualling of the troops. At the same time, he formed camps of instruction (similar to the modern British camp at Aldershot), and all along the frontier established depots for the collecting of military stores.

Upon the navy he expended hardly less energy and money than upon the army. In 1661, France had no navy. In 1667, the king could boast fifty warships. By 1683, the number had risen to 276; by 1690, to 760. England's rival in the Channel, France was the unquestioned mistress of the Mediterranean: the ships of the Spaniards, the Venetians, the Genoese, and the Turks, could sail in that sea only on sufferance.

¹ By the Treaty of Westphalia, which concluded the Thirty Years War (1618–48), France gained Alsace—with the exception of Strassburg, which was expressly reserved for the Empire.

² Savoy, which lay among the Alps on the south-east border of France, was then the leading Italian state. In 1713, under the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, the Duke of Savoy received Sicily and the title of king. But in 1720 he ceded Sicily to the Hapsburgs, taking Sardinia in exchange. He then became known as the king of Sardinia. In the nineteenth century, the ruling house of Sardinia became—with French help—the royal house of united Italy. In 1860, to secure French help, the first king of Italy ceded his territories north of the Alps—the old duchy of Savoy.

³ The story of the Waldenses has been told in Book I of this series, page 156.

Towards the middle of his reign, a curious change came over the *Grand Monarque*. The change was largely due to Madame de Maintenon. This lady, the widow of a poet named Scarron, was installed at Versailles in 1660 as governess to the king's children. In this capacity, she quickly won the affection of her royal charges. Also she won the affection of their father. In 1673, she was created Marquise de Maintenon; and in 1684, shortly after the death of Queen Maria Theresa (page 20), the king married her. She refused to assume the dignity of queen. Her position, however, was generally understood; and, though she took no part in public ceremonies, and never interfered directly in affairs of State, her influence over Louis, the monarch who aspired to rule the world, grew stronger and stronger each year.

Madame de Maintenon was a woman of deep religious convictions. As a result of association with her, the king renounced his pleasure-loving ways, and introduced a stricter mode of life into his Court. Courtiers complained that they found Versailles "as dull as a monastery."

In the eyes of Madame de Maintenon, Protestantism was an abomination. The king, therefore, also viewed it as such. More than that, he became obsessed with the idea that it behoved him, as an absolute monarch, to enforce in his realms one religious allegiance. The population of France at this time numbered about 15,000,000 souls.¹ Of these, fully one million were Protestants—Huguenots, as they were known. That so numerous a community should be allowed to live in the country, protected by special laws, seemed to Louis to imply an imperfection in the body politic.

So he resolved—by persuasion, if possible: failing that by repressive measures—to convert his Huguenot subjects to the Catholic faith. Between 1665 and 1685 he

¹ England and Wales, at the end of the seventeenth century, had a population of about 5½ millions.



LOUIS XIV AND HIS FAMILY

The king is seated, with his eldest son leaning on his chair. His eldest grandson is on the right of the picture. The latter's son, who, in 1715, succeeded to the throne as Louis XV, is seen in the foreground. The figure on the left is Madame de Maintenon. Notice the bronze busts of Henry of Navarre and Louis XIII. The picture thus represents six generations of the French royal family. The original painting, by Nicolas de Largillière (1656-1746), is now in the Wallace Collection, London.

issued two hundred ordinances dealing with *la religion prétendue réformée*. Each of them in some way curtailed the liberties of the Huguenots. Yet, all this time, the king feigned to respect the Edict of Nantes, by which Henry IV, in 1598, at the end of the religious wars,¹ had guaranteed those people a legal status and the right of freedom of worship.

In 1681, Louis adopted another device. He set aside a large sum of public money for religious bribery, and organized an elaborate campaign for the conversion of "heretics." In 1682, it is said, some 58,000 conversions were purchased.

Encouraged by this, the king resorted to stronger measures. First, he issued an edict excluding Huguenots from public employment. Next, he issued an edict closing Huguenot schools and churches. Thousands of people then left the country, choosing to lose their homes rather than change their religion. A royal edict was immediately issued forbidding emigration.

In 1683, in the region of the Cevennes (a range of mountains in the south-east of France), a rebellion broke out. Royal troops speedily crushed the rising; and, to prevent a recurrence of such disorders, a system known as the *dragonnades* was instituted; that is, soldiers were quartered in the houses of all unconverted Huguenots.

The billeting of soldiers on private persons was no new thing in France. The soldiers quartered on Huguenots, however, were encouraged to commit all manner of excesses. By making a practice—which, at the best, was a grievous burden to all upon whom it fell—into a positive martyrdom, it was hoped that unbelievers would be driven into the orthodox faith. And this, in fact, was the effect. Conversions, if not lasting, at least were numerous. In 1684, in the province of Languedoc alone, 60,000 were reported in three days.

¹ The reader is referred to the chapter dealing with the religious wars in France. Book II, page 150.

At last, persuaded that the majority of the Huguenots had been converted, Louis XIV decided to complete his pious work. In 1685, he revoked the Edict of Nantes, thereby declaring to be outlaws those of his subjects who did not adhere to the Roman Church.

Richelieu, though he deprived the Huguenots of political power,¹ did not tamper with their religious liberty. The Huguenots showed their gratitude by becoming the most industrious members of the French community. Barred from engaging in political activities, they turned to banking, trade, and manufacture. To be "as rich as a Huguenot" was a proverb in France in the middle of the seventeenth century.

Between 1670 and 1685 many thousands of these people fled the country. After 1685 the number was greatly increased. As a result of Louis XIV's persecutions, 250,000 of them sought homes in other lands, the best and most industrious citizens of France. To England they went; to Germany, Holland, and Switzerland; to the Dutch settlements in South Africa (page 138), and to the British colonies in America.

Those colonies, it may be noted, were established largely by men who had left the mother country for religious reasons. Louis XIV would not allow Huguenots to settle in the French colonies—in Canada, for example. So they carried to the king's enemies the skill and the thrift which, under Colbert's enlightened patronage, had made France the wealthiest country in Europe.

Ferdinand and Isabella did a silly thing when they drove the Moors and Jews from Spain. Louis XIV did an even sillier thing when he expelled the Huguenots from France.

5.—LOUIS XIV AND WILLIAM III

By revoking the Edict of Nantes, the *Grand Monarque*

¹ Re-read the story of the siege of La Rochelle. Book II, page 160.

roused the hostility of Protestant Europe. By seizing Strassburg and by his conduct in Italy and the Spanish Netherlands, he incurred the enmity of Catholic Europe as well. France was thus left friendless. But this did not suffice to curb the ambition of her ruler.

In 1688, taking advantage of the war then raging between the Emperor and the Turks (page 51), King Louis determined to seize the Palatinate, a German principality bordering on Alsace. Accordingly, he trumped up a preposterous claim to that territory, and threw an army over the Rhine.

In the campaign—the raid of murder and pillage—that followed, French troops wrought frightful devastation in the Palatinate. Towns were ruthlessly plundered, and the country-side was rendered a desert. More than 100,000 people were driven from their homes. If ever you have the good fortune to visit the beautiful city of Heidelberg, look at its venerable but ruined castle : they were soldiers of Louis XIV, in 1689, who reduced it to that state.

The French invasion of the Palatinate enabled William of Orange to form another European coalition against his old enemy. Holland, a number of German states, Spain, Sweden, and Savoy all sprang to arms. A few months later England became a member of the coalition—the League of Augsburg, as it is known.

In 1688 the English people drove James II from the throne, and called upon his son-in-law, William of Orange, to reign in his stead. The king of France refused to recognize King William's title. Further, he undertook, by force of arms, to restore the exiled James. William, therefore, had no difficulty in persuading his English subjects to go to war.

The War of the League of Augsburg lasted from 1688 to 1697. Little need be said here concerning it. Many battles were fought, but all were indecisive ; and, in the

32 BUILDING OF THE MODERN WORLD—III

end, the belligerents were glad to sign the Peace of Ryswick, which settled nothing.

The chief interest of this war is to be found in the fighting which took place at sea between the fleets of France and Britain—the first round of that long struggle for naval supremacy which Nelson, in 1805, finally decided in Britain's favour.

In 1689, England and Scotland submitted to the rule of the Protestant king, William of Orange. Ireland remained loyal to James. Louis XIV, therefore, sent troops to that country to help James to maintain his position there.

In 1690, William in person went to Ireland, and defeated James at the battle of the Boyne. One-quarter of the army which gave



MEDAL OF LOUIS XIV

cast in 1689 to commemorate the reception of the exiled James II, his queen and eldest son ("the Old Pretender") at the French Court.

William this victory was made up of Huguenots, led by Marshal Schomberg, the ablest of King Louis' exiled generals.

After the battle of the Boyne, James fled to Paris. William, however, was still far from being master of Ireland. On the eve of the battle of the Boyne, the French gained a great victory off Beachy Head over the combined British and Dutch fleets. For two years after this the French were masters of the Channel, and King Louis was able not only to send troops to Ireland, but to keep England menaced with invasion.

In 1692 he actually attempted an invasion. An army was collected in Normandy, and the French fleet was ordered up from Brest to convoy it across the Channel. This seemed likely to prove an easy undertaking. Admiral Russell, in command of England's naval forces, had been for some time in secret communication with James, and had given a tacit promise that he would not oppose the crossing of the invading army. When the French fleet hove in sight, however, the English admiral was overcome either by com-

punction or by the fighting spirit in him. At any rate, he fell upon King Louis' ships and destroyed them (the battle of La Hogue, May 19, 1692). This victory—which gained for Russell a peerage he scarcely deserved—put an end to the possibility of an invasion of England, and forced the French to leave Ireland at the mercy of King William.

The knowledge that King Charles II of Spain—whose death had long been looked for—actually was dying induced the *Grand Monarque* to agree to the Peace of Ryswick. The French king had a lively interest in the Spanish succession, and he wished to be free from other entanglements when that question came up for settlement.

Charles II had neither brothers nor children, and his two sisters—Maria Theresa, queen of France, and Margaret, the wife of the Emperor Leopold—had renounced their claims to Spain and her dependencies (Spanish America, Milan, Naples, Sicily, and the Netherlands). If these renunciations were valid in law, the Emperor Leopold—a grandson of King Philip III of Spain—was left as heir to the Spanish heritage.

Which of the various claimants really had the best title it is impossible to say. A careful study of the table facing page 40 will help to make intelligible this difficult question. For many years, prior to the death of Charles II, the governments of Europe incessantly wrangled over it, striving to devise a peaceable settlement.

The Emperor Leopold knew that Europe would not allow Spain and the Empire again to be united as they had been in the days of Charles V (1519–56). So he passed on his claim to Charles (afterwards the Emperor Charles VI), the second son of his second marriage. King Louis XIV and Maria, Electress of Bavaria (the daughter of Leopold's first marriage), each professed to have an equally good title; and each demanded at least a share of the spoil. The king of France was the more insistent. Him the emperor had particularly to fear. Hence the secret treaty of 1688 (page 21).

Twenty years later the emperor had ceased to count for much in Europe. Louis XIV then saw that a peaceful partition of the Spanish heritage could be effected only with the consent of William of Orange. In 1689 he opened negotiations with William. Eventually, the governments of England, France and Holland agreed to a partition.

Spain, Spanish America, and the Netherlands, it was decided, should go to the Electoral Prince, Maria's son. This boy was then only five years of age, and, being neither Austrian nor French by birth, was acceptable by all parties. Milan was to go to Charles. Naples, Sicily, and one or two districts bordering on France, were to go to Philip, the younger of the grandsons of Louis XIV.

It was unlikely that the Emperor would risk a war with England, France and Holland. The matter, therefore, seemed to be settled. Then, on February 6, 1699, the Electoral Prince died of smallpox (a disease which few people escaped in those pre-vaccination days). This re-opened the whole question. Partition negotiations again were feverishly started.

Charles II, though an imbecile (page 20), was not wholly wanting in spirit. He was at least capable of resenting these schemes for apportioning his possessions. The *Grand Monarque* carefully nursed this resentment, with the result that, on October 7, 1700, the Spanish king made a will, by which he left his all to Philip (Louis' grandson).

On November 1 he died.

A breathless suspense hung over Europe when the contents of the will were made known. What would Louis do ?

The French king was not slow in deciding. He bade his Court assemble on November 16 in the great gallery at Versailles, giving out that he would then announce his intentions.

The gallery was thronged with people—State officials, courtiers, and foreign diplomats—for hours before the king appeared. At length, attendants threw open the folding doors at the far end, and King Louis entered, leaning on Philip's shoulder. He bowed to the assembly. Then he spoke, and his words penetrated to every corner of the vast hall. "*Messieurs*," he said, motioning to his grandson, "*voici le roi d'Espagne.*"

Louis' decision was popular in Spain, and for a time it seemed that the French king's audacity would win the day. Germany was inclined to acquiesce; also England and Holland—despite William of Orange. "I

am troubled to the very bottom of my soul," wrote William, "to find, now that the business has become public, that nearly everybody congratulates himself that France has preferred the will to the treaty."

Then Louis, infatuated by success, so far forgot his statecraft as to commit two fatal errors. In 1701 he formally declared that Philip's right to the French throne was in no way impaired by his succession to the throne of Spain. In that same year, on the death of James II of England, he publicly acknowledged the exiled king's son (the Old Pretender) as "James III."

The second of these errors roused England. The first roused Europe; and William, a few months before his death (1702), was able to form a Grand Alliance of England, Austria, and Holland to bring the French tyrant to his knees. Subsequently Brandenburg (soon to be known as Prussia), Portugal, Savoy, and Denmark joined the alliance.

So began the War of the Spanish Succession (1701-14).

6.—THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION

The War of the Spanish Succession opened under auspices favourable to the French. If right lay on the side of the allies, might lay on the side of King Louis. The allies, moreover, were fighting for widely different objects; and, though the total of their resources in men and money was greater than that of France and Spain, they lacked the advantages conferred by unity of command. That they were saved from defeat was due to the genius of two men—Prince Eugene of Savoy, and the English leader, John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough.

The nations of the modern world have far-flung interests. When they go to war, they go to war the whole world over. The War of the League of Augsburg, the War of the Spanish Succession, and most of the wars mentioned in this volume, were fought not only in Europe, but in America, in Africa, and in the East.

In the present chapter, we are concerned primarily with Euro-

pean affairs, and with general results. Later, however, we shall have something to say about the fighting in other parts of the world. The reader is urged frequently to refer to the chronological chart at the end of the book in order that he may see the relation between events which occurred in Europe and events which occurred elsewhere. Also, he should bear in mind that these wars were not merely *dynastic*. They were essentially *national* as well: while kings were fighting for crowns, people were fighting for colonies and trade.

In Europe, the War of the Spanish Succession was carried on in four separate "theatres"—the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, and Spain. At first, the French were successful in each. While Churchill had as much as he could do to hold his own in the Netherlands, and Eugene in Italy was very hard pressed, French bayonets firmly established Philip on the throne of Spain, and French armies advanced so far into Germany that, in 1704, the Emperor, thinking all to be lost, made preparations to abandon Vienna.

Marlborough, seeing that victories he might gain in the Netherlands could not compensate for the fall of Vienna, suddenly changed his plans, and hastened across western Germany to the relief of the threatened city. At the same time, Prince Eugene sped from Italy to join him; and on August 14 the allied leaders, having united their forces, attacked the French near Blenheim, on the upper Danube. Churchill and Prince Eugene won a memorable victory that day. The greater part of the French army was destroyed; the remainder was driven in disorder towards the Rhine.

Churchill, on his return to England, was created Duke of Marlborough, and was thanked by Parliament for his great achievement. The nation showed its gratitude by giving him an estate at Woodstock, near Oxford. Blenheim Palace, the mansion on this estate, is still the home of his heirs.

The battle of Blenheim marked the turning of the tide of French success. In the same month Sir George

Rooke, commanding an Anglo-Dutch fleet, captured Gibraltar, the rock-fortress in Spain, which from that day to this has remained in British hands. In 1706, Marlborough, who had returned to the Netherlands, again overwhelmed the French—at Ramillies. Led by the duke, the British army at that time was the finest fighting force in Europe, and Private Thomas Atkins, if not invincible, at least justified the ballad-maker's boast that—

Upon each pair of English legs
Did march three Frenchmen.

Also in 1706, Eugene, as the result of a victory gained at Turin, drove the enemy out of Italy. The prince then joined Marlborough in the Netherlands; and in 1708 these two generals inflicted yet another heavy defeat upon the French—at Oudenarde.

After this, King Louis, despairing of bringing the war to a successful end, was ready to make peace on almost any terms. In order to meet the cost of the war, the government had forced taxation to a point beyond which it could not be carried; and the raising of additional loans was out of the question. France's veteran armies had been destroyed, and her generals were discredited. The abnormally severe winter of 1708-9, by bringing famine to the country, intensified the misery of the people.



A BRITISH INFANTRY-
MAN OF THE TIME OF
MARLBOROUGH

In 1709, peace negotiations were opened at The Hague. The allies then repeated the mistake made by the French in 1672 (page 22): they demanded too much. They required of King Louis not only that he should surrender all his recent conquests, including Strassburg, but that he should do what they themselves had failed to achieve—compel his grandson to relinquish the throne of Spain.

"If I must fight," said Louis, "I would rather fight my enemies than my own children." Always at his best in difficult circumstances, he then showed himself to be truly a national king. Protesting that he was not responsible for the continuance of the war, he put up for public sale his jewels and priceless treasures from his art collections, and appealed to his people to rally round him. His people at once responded. Nobles freely offered their plate, ladies their jewels, and peasants their hoarded *sous*. Within a few weeks France was able to put into the field a new army of 100,000 men.

On September 11, at Malplaquet, the redoubtable Marlborough defeated this army. But the victory was dearly bought. The battle, like that fought near by, at Mons, in August, 1714, was as honourable to the vanquished as to the victors. Incidentally, it was the last which the allies won.

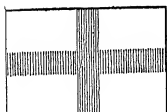
In 1705, the Emperor Leopold died. In 1711, his elder son, the Emperor Joseph I (see the table facing page 40), died also. This left the Archduke Charles, the Austrian claimant to the Spanish succession, as emperor. Europe had no wish to fight against France in order that Spain might be linked to the Empire. Europe, moreover, was weary of war.

Nowhere was war-weariness stronger than in Great Britain.¹ Prior to 1709 the two great political parties, the Whigs and the Tories, had been of one mind in

¹ By the Act of Union of 1707 the kingdoms of England and Scotland were united as Great Britain.

matters relating to the conduct of the war. After the breakdown of the peace negotiations at The Hague, the Tories accused the Whigs of needlessly prolonging the struggle. In 1710, the Whig Government was overthrown. Tories then took office; and in 1713 the Treaty of Utrecht was signed with France.

Under the terms of this treaty, the Spanish Netherlands (henceforth known as the Austrian Netherlands) were given to the Emperor, who also received the Spanish



CROSS OF ST. GEORGE
(ENGLAND).

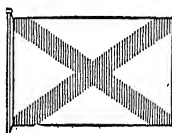


CROSS OF ST. ANDREW
(SCOTLAND).

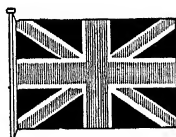


COMBINED IN 1707 TO FORM
UNION JACK.

I.e. Jacques, the French
form of James: James I,
First King of Great Britain.



CROSS OF ST. PATRICK
(IRELAND).



Added to Union Jack
upon union of Ireland with
Great Britain in 1801.

Vertical
shading = Red.
Solid black = Blue.

THE STORY OF THE UNION JACK

provinces in Italy—with the exception of Sicily, which went to Savoy. Britain acquired Gibraltar and Minorca, together with the *Assiento*—or contract for supplying Spanish America with slaves from the west coast of Africa—which had been held first by the Portuguese, then by the Dutch, and then by the French. Britain also secured important gains in North America—notably the French colony of Arcadia (Nova Scotia), and undisputed possession of Newfoundland.

Yet King Louis, though forced, in addition, to admit

that the British people had the right to be ruled by a sovereign of their own choosing, and though forced to make reparation to Holland, and to renounce all hope of uniting France and Spain, was allowed to retain Strassburg and the other conquests made during the earlier part of his reign. Also he was allowed to leave his grandson—Philip V, the first of the Bourbon kings of Spain—on the Spanish throne.

The Emperor refused to be a party to the Treaty of Utrecht. In 1714, however, he gave way, and signed a separate treaty with France—the Treaty of Rastadt—confirming its chief terms.

In the following year the *Grand Monarque* died.

CHAPTER II

THE TURKISH REVIVAL

1.—THE KIUPRILI

On May 29, 1453, Constantinople fell into the hands of the Ottoman Turks. The latter, a Mohammedan people, invaded Europe from Asia Minor. They are known as the Ottoman Turks, because a chieftain named Othman (corrupted to Ottoman) founded their empire. This Othman, in 1300, established himself in Asia Minor as sultan, or ruler, of the Turkish tribes which—driven by Tartars from their homes in Turkestan—had migrated thither.

For more than a thousand years Constantinople had been the capital of the Eastern (Roman) Empire. When it fell, that empire ceased to exist; and the lands of south-eastern Europe, brought under an Oriental despotism, were cut off from the influence of Western civilization.

Mohammed II, the sultan who captured Constantinople, died in 1481. By that time the Turks had overrun the whole of the Balkan

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE RULERS

[Note : Emperors are printed in CAPITALS : Spanish

MAXIMILIAN I = Mary, heiress of the Netherlands
(1473-1519)

Philip = Joanna, heiress of Spain, Spanish
(d. 1506) America, Naples and Sicily

CHARLES V (Charles I, 1516-56)
(1519-56)

Philip II
(1556-98)

Mary = MAXIMILIAN II
(1564-78)

Philip III
(1598-1621)

RUDOLPH
(1576-1612)

Louis XIII = Anne of Austria
(1610-43)

Philip IV
(1621-65)

Louis XIV = Maria Theresa
(1643-1715)

Charles II
(1665-1700)

Louis, the Dauphin
(d. 1711)

Louis, duke of Burgundy
(d. 1712)

Philip V
(1700-46)

Louis XV
(1715-74)

Ferdinand VI
(1746-59)

Charles III
(1759-88)

Louis, the Dauphin
(d. 1785)

Charles IV
(1788-1808)

Louis XVI
(1774-92 : executed, 1793)

Louis XVIII
(1814-24)

Charles X
(1824-30)

Ferdinand VII
(1814-33)

Louis (called Louis XVIII)
(d. 1795)

Isabella
(1832-68)

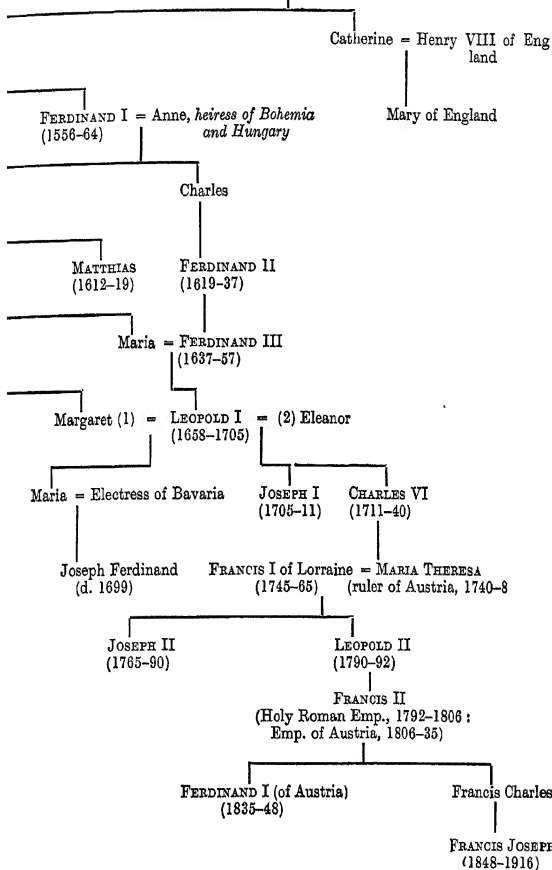
Alphonso XII
(1875-85)

Alphonso XIII
(1885- ?)

OF THE EMPIRE, FRANCE AND SPAIN

Kings in *italics* : Kings of France in **black letters**.]

Ferdinand of Aragon = *Isabella of Castile*
(1479-1516) (1474-1506)



Peninsula, south of the line of the Danube and the Save. Under Mohammed II's warlike successors, their empire continued to grow.

It soon came to include territories north of the Danube—Moldavia, Transylvania, and Wallachia (roughly, the modern kingdom of Rumania), together with the western and northern shores of the Black Sea. Sultan Selim I (1512-20) annexed Egypt, Palestine, and Syria; he also took possession of Mecca, in Arabia, the holy city of Islam (i.e. Mohammedanism), and so acquired the position—retained by Ottoman sultans until 1922—of caliph, or spiritual head, of the Mohammedan world.

Under Sultan Soliman I (1520-66), the Turks conquered Mesopotamia and all northern Africa, whilst at sea they gained an absolute supremacy in the Mediterranean. In 1526, Sultan Soliman carried the Crescent (the emblem of the new, or increasing, moon which the Turks had adopted as their standard) into Hungary, defeated the Hungarians at the battle of Mohacs, and added two-thirds of their country to his empire.

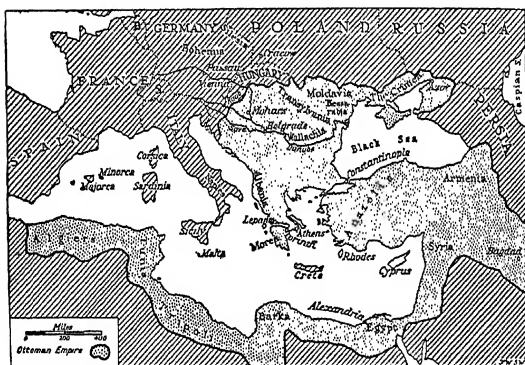
The map on page 42 shows the extent of the conquests made by the house of Othman during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The kings and princes of the West were strangely indifferent at this time to the advance of an Oriental power into Europe. Engrossed in their own rivalries, they could not bring themselves, by concerted action, to expel the invader who, as the champion of Islam, had undertaken to avenge on Christendom the days of the Crusades. Mohammed II had boasted that he would stable his horses in the Church of St. Peter, at Rome. Yet, even when this threat seemed likely at any moment to be carried into effect, when Turkish armies were advancing farther and farther up the Danube, opposition was almost entirely local.

In 1529 the enemy appeared before the walls of Vienna. The Emperor Charles V then took up arms and drove them back. The Emperor, however, contented himself with this limited success. Neither he nor any of his brother sovereigns attempted to liberate the peoples who had already passed into the degrading servitude of Turkish rule.

As on land, so it was at sea. In 1571, King Philip II of Spain fitted out a fleet which, off Lepanto, in the Gulf of Corinth, gained a notable victory. But for a hundred

42 BUILDING OF THE MODERN WORLD—III

years prior to this Turkish corsairs had been allowed to ravage the coasts of Italy and Spain, opposed only by the sailor-folk of Venice and the gallant Hospitallers.¹ The battle of Lepanto, moreover, commonly accounted one of the decisive battles of history, was decisive not so much because it marked a successful effort on the part of Christendom to avert a terrible danger as because it happened to be fought at a time when Turkish power was declining.



THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE IN 1660

As soldiers, the Turks had—and still have—few rivals. But they could not, and cannot, assimilate and govern. They have prospered, therefore, only while they have been conquerors. To them empire has meant military domination, the exaction of tribute from subject peoples. They have never unified the lands under their rule, welded them into a Turkish state.

A river, when it overflows its banks, may turn the fields on either

¹ The Hospitallers, or Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, were members of a religious order of knighthood surviving from the days of the Crusades. After the crusading era, the knights occupied the island of Rhodes. Driven thence by the Turks in 1523, they made Malta their head-quarters. There they maintained themselves till expelled by Napoleon Bonaparte in 1798.

side of it into a waste of water. But the flood, while damaging, does not utterly destroy. As the river falls back into its accustomed channel, old landmarks reappear, and trees and hedgerows, though twisted and torn, are found still to be alive.

To such a catastrophe the advance of Turkish power in Europe has been well compared.¹ "The Turks submerged the civilization of south-eastern Europe, they did not uproot it. They injured it, they did not destroy it. . . . They imposed their own government over the conquered lands, but, underneath, the old religion, the old laws, the old customs were still observed."

In the second half of the sixteenth century the springs which fed the river of Turkish power suddenly dried up. Sultans who preferred the idle luxury of life at Constantinople to the hazards and hardship of war, succeeded to the throne of Mohammed II, Selim, and Soliman. The flood of conquest then subsided, and the submerged peoples of the Balkans gradually reappeared, broken in spirit and impoverished, but still alive. The Turkish menace, it seemed, had departed.

Europe has often thought that. In 1844, the Czar of Russia, in conversation with the Duke of Wellington, referred to the Ottoman Empire as "irrevocably sick." Said he: "We have on our hands a sick man, a very sick man. It would be a great misfortune if, one of these days, he should happen to die before the necessary arrangements are made." But the sick man did not die: as on each of the other occasions when the doctors have despaired of his life, he made a remarkable recovery.

At the beginning of the seventeenth century the Turk was very ill. During the next fifty years he grew feebler and feebler. But just when he appeared to be at the last extremity, on the point of death, he astonished Europe by leaping from his bed, as vigorous as he had ever been.

In 1656, a certain Mohammed Kiuprili was raised to the office of Grand Vizier,² or chief minister, at Constantinople.

¹ H. O. Wakeman's *The Ascendancy of France*, Chapter XII.

² "Vizier" is derived from the Arabic verb *wazara*, "to bear a burden." Originally a *wazir*, or vizier, was a porter. Subsequently the word came to denote one called upon to bear burdens of State.

Though an Albanian by birth, Kiuprili was essentially an Oriental and, a devout Mohammedan, was animated by that same fanaticism which had impelled the great sultans of the house of Othman to conquest.

His accession to office had an instantaneous effect. The Turks, as of old, found themselves led by a man they understood and who understood them. The mountain springs again began to operate, and the stream of Turkish power—to return to the metaphor of the river—again overflowed its banks.

Mohammed Kiuprili was an old man when he became Grand Vizier—in his seventy-first year; and in 1661 he died. But his work did not die with him. As his successor, he left a son whom he himself had carefully trained, and who inherited all his ability.

This son, Achmet Kiuprili, faithfully carried on his father's policy.

2.—JOHN SOBIESKI

In 1663 Achmet Kiuprili—at the head of 120,000 men—burst into Austrian Hungary (see the map on page 42). Driving before him such forces as the Emperor Leopold I could muster, he swept on into Austria proper. Then Louis XIV, King of France, came to the Emperor's aid, and the Turk's victorious progress was checked.

Hitherto the rulers of France had maintained cordial relations with Constantinople, and had encouraged Turkish attacks on Austria. By keeping the Emperor busy on the Danube, they hoped to make easier the achievement of their own purpose—the expansion of France to the Rhine.

Mohammed Kiuprili, when he took office, repudiated the French alliance. Turkey, he said, should have no dealings—save war—with any European power: friendship could not exist between Christianity and Islam. The advances of the French ambassador he rejected with scorn. This affront to the majesty of France had to be

avenged. In 1663, 30,000 French troops marched into Austria to succour the Emperor.

The Turks were good fighters. But when they met the French, they met their masters. They could not withstand the onslaughts of King Louis' cavalry. At St. Gothard, on the river Raab (see the map on page 42), Achmet suffered a heavy defeat. The Emperor, however, having no wish to be under an obligation to France, would not follow up this victory. He feared his ally even more than he feared the enemy; and, after the battle, he offered peace to Achmet on very favourable terms. The Turkish leader hastened to accept the offer (Treaty of Vasvar, August, 1664).

Achmet devoted the next few years to the prosecution of a war with Venice. The island of Crete, a Venetian stronghold in the Mediterranean, had long been a source of annoyance to the house of Othman; and Turkish forces had been struggling since 1645 to get possession of it. Until 1667, when Achmet Kiuprili in person took charge of operations, their efforts met with no success; and even then another two years passed before they achieved their object.

For twenty-five years (1645-69) Candia, the chief town of the island, defied the might of its assailants. The Turks delivered fifty-six direct assaults upon the fortress, but only when disease, famine, and slaughter had so thinned the ranks of its defenders that there were no longer enough men to hold the breaches in the battered walls did Candia at last capitulate.¹

The name of Francesco Morosini, the Venetian general who commanded the garrison, deserves to be remembered.

In 1672 Achmet Kiuprili led his victorious forces into

¹ After 1669 the island of Crete—shown by recent excavations to have been the scene of one of the earliest civilizations—remained a Turkish dependency till 1910, when, after many revolts, it was united with Greece.

Poland, and quickly overran the southern provinces of that country. The Poles, however, refused to acknowledge defeat. Rallying round John Sobieski, a patriot belonging to one of the noblest families in the land, they battled with the invader for four long years (1672-6), and in the end they forced him to surrender most of his gains. The Great Powers of Europe, engaged in a deadly conflict on the Rhine (page 22), did not move a hand to help them. The resolution and military talent of John Sobieski alone saved Poland from falling under Turkish domination.

In 1674, the Poles elected John Sobieski as their king.

Seven days after the signing of the treaty (Peace of Zurawno, October, 1676) which concluded the war between Poland and Turkey, Achmet Kiuprili died. His brother-in-law, Kara Mustafa, then became Grand Vizier.

Kara Mustafa, the most aggressive of the Turkish leaders of this age, made Vienna his goal. By capturing Vienna he purposed at one blow to win his way into the heart of Christendom. Six years he spent drilling armies and collecting munitions. To further his design, he reversed the policy of Mohammed and Achmet Kiuprili, and sought to restore friendly relations with France.

The *Grand Monarque* welcomed his overtures. His Most Christian Majesty¹ wanted to see Austria collapse. Somewhere in his mind that ambitious prince entertained the idea of coming forward, in the fullness of time, as the champion of Christendom, overthrowing the Turk, and so of giving France control of the destinies not only of western but of eastern Europe.

King Louis played a dangerous and selfish game. Had the Turks established themselves at Vienna, even the

¹ The title, "the Most Christian King," was first adopted by the Frankish leader, Clovis (481-511). The successors of Clovis continued to bear it for so long as France was governed by kings (see Book I of this series, pages 32 and 33).

strength of France might not have been able to dislodge them. They might have clung to Vienna as they have clung to Constantinople; and had they then extended their empire to the Rhine, as Kara Mustafa intended, the whole course of Western civilization must have been changed.

And Vienna very nearly fell.



EMPEROR LEOPOLD I (1657-1705)

In 1682 Kara Mustafa launched his great attack and, advancing through Hungary at the head of an army of 200,000 men, bore down straight upon the Austrian capital. Alone, the Emperor had little hope of beating back the Turk. And where could he look for allies? France was in active league with the enemy: to whatever other quarter Leopold turned, he found himself out-

manceuvred by French diplomacy and French intrigue.

Even the princes of Germany refused to support their nominal chief; a Diet which met at Ratisbon in 1682 broke up without granting any aid. Germany was more interested in the aggressions of France than in those of Turkey. In 1681 Louis XIV, taking advantage of the pending Turkish attack on Vienna, had seized the city of Strassburg (page 26). What would his next move be? While the Turks advanced on the Danube, the eyes of Germany were fixed on the Rhine.

Of the other military powers of Europe, none seemed likely to offer effective help. Spain was in a condition of decay. The governments of England and Sweden were both under the influence of France. In Poland lay the Emperor's only hope. But Poland was a slender reed upon which to lean: the Poles had little reason to love the Emperor. The latter had not done anything to assist them in their hour of need: why, they asked, should they assist him?

When the Turkish army appeared on the plains of Hungary, the Emperor Leopold moved his Court for safety from Vienna to Passau. The Duke of Lorraine, who was in chief command of the imperial forces, also retired farther up the Danube, leaving Count Stahremberg, with a garrison of 14,000 men, to hold the Austrian capital. The duke wisely decided not to invite certain defeat by risking a battle until a reply to the Emperor's earnest entreaties had been received from Poland.

In that country the struggle was intense. Finally, however, the indomitable spirit of John Sobieski triumphed over opposition. Not only on behalf of Austria—the king pleaded to his parliament—were the Poles urged to fight, but to save Christianity and civilization. His chivalry silenced pettiness. On March 31, 1683, Poland entered into an alliance with Austria, binding herself to send 40,000 soldiers to support the Emperor.

3.—THE SIEGE OF VIENNA

Five months elapsed before John Sobieski could collect and equip an army. Money was short. Delays, therefore, were inevitable. On August 15 the Polish king at last began his march from Cracow (see the map on page 42). The Turks had then been investing Vienna for a month.

Count Stahremberg (page 48), when he took over the command, found the defences in a deplorable condition. He did all that was possible to strengthen them; but he had only 14,000 soldiers serving under him, and they, in addition to holding the ramparts, had to maintain order in a city dangerously overcrowded by refugees from the surrounding country. The besieging army numbered fully 200,000 men, and the Turks could boast—next to the French—the most efficient engineers and artillery in Europe.

Had Kara Mustafa delivered one determined assault, Vienna must have fallen. Happily, the Turkish commander did not press the attack. He wished the Austrian capital to pass into his hands, undamaged, and so chose to starve it to surrender.

On September 5 John Sobieski joined forces with the Duke of Lorraine, and on September 11 the allied army, 70,000 strong, under the command of the Polish king, came within sight of the spires of the city. The garrison was then in a hopeless plight; Count Stahremberg could not have held out for many more days.

John Sobieski was quick to appreciate the peril. He at once made ready for battle and, at daybreak on the 12th, advanced to the attack. Panic seized the Turks as the Poles, shouting their war-cry, "Sobieski for ever," bore down upon them. Ere evening Kara Mustafa's great host had been scattered to the winds. John Sobieski, in a letter to his queen, wrote a graphic descrip-

tion of the rout. This letter has been preserved. Below is a translation of a part of it :

IN THE VIZIER'S TENT.

September 13—at night.

Beloved and charming Mariette, the one delight of my soul, God be for ever praised ; He has given a victory to our nation, a victory the like of which past ages have never seen. All the artillery and the whole of the Mohammedan camp and infinite wealth are in our hands. The approaches to the town and the surrounding fields are covered with Turkish corpses, and the survivors have fled in consternation. . . .

The vizier abandoned everything in his flight ; he has kept only his clothes and his horse. I have constituted myself his heir, for most of his wealth has fallen into my hands. As I was advancing with the first line, driving him before me, I met one of his servants, who took me to his tents and his private court. These tents alone occupy as large an area as the towns of Warsaw or Lemberg. . . . I have not seen everything yet. . . . Four or five quivers mounted with rubies and sapphires alone are worth some thousands of pounds. . . . So, my love, you will not say to me, as the Turkish women say to their husbands when they come back with their booty : " You are no warrior, as you have brought me nothing ; for it is only the man who goes in front who can get anything."

. . . The Turks left many prisoners behind, natives of the country, especially women, but they massacred all they could. Many of the women have been killed, but some are only wounded and may recover. . . . The vizier had a very fine ostrich, but he had cut off its head so that it should not fall into the power of the Christians. I cannot possibly describe all the refined luxury collected in his tents : there were baths, little gardens with fountains, and even a parrot which the soldiers pursued but could not capture. To-day I went to see the town ; it could not have held out another five days. The imperial palace is shattered with cannon balls, and the huge bastions rent and half tumbling. . . .

I am just about to mount my horse for the march upon Hungary. . . .

John Sobieski was too good a soldier to allow the Turks to escape while he counted the spoils of victory. With his cavalry—Prince Eugene (page 35), it may be noted, was serving with the cavalry—he pursued the defeated foe, as far as the walls of Belgrade. There Kara Mustafa rallied his forces, and checked the rout. But the Grand Vizier did not succeed in saving his own head : at Belgrade he was met by envoys from his royal master at Constantinople, and was made to pay, in the Oriental manner, the price of failure.

In the following year (1684), Venice declared war on the Turks. That republic, the Emperor and Poland, then formed a Holy League to complete the discomfiture of the sultan. John Sobieski played but a small part in this undertaking; in 1685, worn out by ill-health and the difficulties of governing unruly Poland, he resigned his crown. Victory, however, continued to attend the allies.

In 1687, the Duke of Lorraine inflicted a crushing defeat on the Turks on the historic field of Mohacs (page 41). As a result of this battle, the whole of Hungary¹ was won back to Christendom. In 1688, the duke forced the Turks to surrender Transylvania. Then, marching southward, he crossed the Danube, and laid siege to Belgrade (the capital of modern Yugo-Slavia) and Nisch. Both of these important fortresses he captured.

In the Mediterranean, meanwhile, the Venetians, led by Morosini, the hero of the siege of Candia (page 45), had driven the Turks from the Morea, the southern extremity of the Greek peninsula—the Peloponnesus as the ancients called it. Morea is a word of Greek origin, meaning a “mulberry leaf.” Look at the map (page 42): you will see that this part of Greece is shaped just like a leaf.

In 1687, the gallant Morosini captured Athens and Thebes. After this he harried the Turks in the Adriatic, and wrested from them a number of strongholds on the Dalmatian coast.

Alas, the Venetian attack on Athens caused irreparable damage to the Parthenon, the crowning glory of ancient Grecian architecture. Other famous buildings, belonging to the days when little Athens had been the chief civilizing factor in the world, also were injured. In the past these buildings had survived many sieges without suffering serious hurt: they could not withstand the destructive force of gunpowder.

The Parthenon, wonderful even in its present ruined state, stands on the Acropolis, the citadel of ancient Athens. It was built in

¹ From 1687 to 1918 Hungary followed the fortunes of the house of Hapsburg. In 1918, when the Austrian Empire was dismembered, the country was constituted an independent republic.

the fifth century B.C. as a temple of Athena, the city's protecting deity, and was fashioned of white marble adorned by Phidias, a sculptor whose work has never been rivalled.

The Turks, when they occupied Athens in A.D. the fifteenth century, converted the Parthenon into a powder magazine. In 1687 a Venetian bomb chanced to fall among its explosive contents—with disastrous consequences. For many years the wrecked building was allowed to crumble, uncared for. At last, in 1816, Lord Elgin, the British ambassador at Constantinople, prevailed upon the Sultan of Turkey to allow him to rescue such of the sculptures of Phidias as had not been wholly destroyed. These sculptures may be seen in the British Museum. They are known as the Elgin Marbles.

The defeats of 1686 and '87 resulted in a revolution at Constantinople. The Turks overthrew the reigning sultan, and made his brother (Soliman II) their ruler in his stead. The new sultan resolved again to entrust the affairs of the empire to a Kiuprili—Mustafa Kiuprili, Achmet's brother.

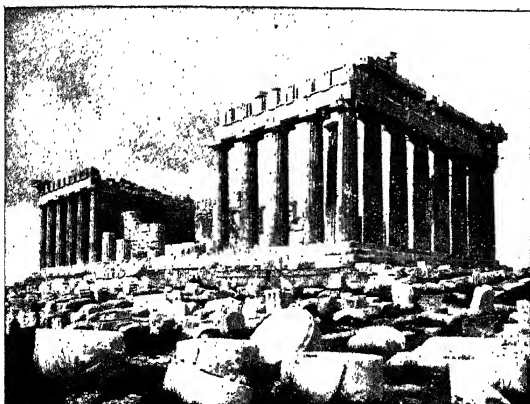
This had the desired effect; Turkish fortunes at once revived. Mustafa Kiuprili speedily recovered Nisch and Belgrade. Then he swept into Hungary. But in 1690 he fell in battle, and with him died Turkey's last hope of regaining what she had lost.

In 1695, Russia joined the ranks of her enemies; and, in the following year, Czar Peter the Great (page 56) achieved the first of his military successes by capturing Azov, in the Crimea. Beset on every side by foes, the sultan gave up the struggle; in 1699 he concluded the Peace of Carlowitz. This treaty made the Danube, to all intents and purposes, the northern boundary of the Ottoman Empire. By it, the sultan also surrendered lands south of that river. To Venice he ceded both Dalmatia and the Morea.

In 1715 the Turks made a final and despairing effort to restore their influence in Europe. But though they contrived to wrest the Morea from Venice, they failed to make any progress in the north. The house of Hapsburg, as we shall see later (Chapter IV), was forced in the eighteenth century to hand over the leadership of Northern

and Western Germany to the Prussian house of Hohenzollern. Ousted from the Rhine, emperors were able to concentrate their strength on the defence of the Danube.

South of the Danube the flood of Turkish conquest subsided very slowly. Not till the nineteenth century



[Mansell phot.]

THE PARTHENON AT ATHENS

This building, the crowning glory of ancient Greek architecture, was reduced to its present ruined state during the bombardment of Athens by the Venetians in 1685. Originally it was a temple of Athena, the protecting deity of Athens; it was dedicated to that goddess in 438 B.C.

did the submerged peoples of those parts, Bulgars, Greeks, and Serbs, reappear as nations, and take their places in the European family.

CHAPTER III

THE AWAKENING OF RUSSIA

1.—IVAN THE TERRIBLE

The Latins, the Teutons, and the Slavs constitute three of the main branches of that family of the human race

whose members are classed as white men. The countries of western Europe are inhabited mostly by Latins and Teutons. The countries of eastern and south-eastern Europe are inhabited largely by Slavs. There is a strong Slav element in the population of Czecho-Slovakia. Yugo-Slavia is a Slavonic country. So is Poland. So is Russia.

The Slavs, it has been written, "occupy a greater place on the map than in history." Yet they have played a big part in the building of the modern world. Since the seventeenth century, they have been an increasingly important factor in that ordering of the scheme of things which we call history. In the seventeenth century the Russians emerged from a long childhood, and were admitted into the quarrelsome fellowship of European nations.

In the ninth century, bands of Norsemen, adventurers from Scandinavia, raided and gradually colonized England, France, and southern Italy. Similar bands, meanwhile, harried the lands east of the Baltic. About 865, a Norse chieftain, Rurik by name, established himself as king of the Slavonic tribes which dwelt in the region of the Valdai Hills (see the map on page 61). Rurik founded the city of Novgorod as his capital.

The Slavs, in their language, referred to the Norseman and his followers as *Ruotsi* (sea-raiders). From this word is derived the name of the country which we call Russia.

The house of Rurik continued to rule for many years, and made Novgorod the centre of an extensive kingdom. Vladimir, one of the monarchs of this line, married a princess of the Eastern (Roman) Empire, and introduced Christianity into his realms. Russia was thus brought under the influence of Constantinople, and civilization made rapid strides in the country. Then, suddenly, the march of progress was stayed. . . .

Politically, Russia is a part of Europe. Geographic-

ally, it is a continuation of the vast plain of northern Asia. In the thirteenth century, therefore, it lay open to attack by the then restless and aggressive Tartars (page 40). The latter—a Mongolian, or yellow, people—began their amazing career of conquest under the famous Genghis Khan (1162–1227). Having overrun central Asia, they invaded China; thence they marched westward, and, crossing into Europe, reduced Russia to subjection.

Russia was then broken into a number of small principalities, all tributary to the Great Khan. At last, in the fifteenth century, led by a prince of the house of Moscow, Ivan III (1440–1505), the people rose in revolt against Tartar domination. Finally, Ivan liberated and re-united the old dominions of the house of Rurik. Under his grandson, Ivan IV (1530–84), the country again came within the orbit of European culture.

Ivan IV, on account of his horrible cruelties, is known to history as Ivan the Terrible. This monarch, however, the first of the rulers of Russia to assume the title of Czar,¹ strove earnestly to foster Western art and learning in his dominions, and to introduce Western ideas. With a view to developing trade, he made foreign merchants welcome at his capital.

In 1554, Ivan concluded a treaty of commerce with the English queen, Mary (Tudor). Two years later, the first Russian ambassador was “honourably received into England.” In the sixteenth century, however, trading relations between the Russians and the nations of the West could be maintained only with great difficulty.

Ivan the Terrible, by conquering Astrakan from the Tartars, advanced the boundary of his kingdom southward to the Caspian; and, by annexing western Siberia, he strengthened its Asiatic frontier. But he failed to gain an open port. Poland and Sweden barred expansion

¹ The title of “Czar” is a Russianized form of the Latin *Cæsar*: cf. the German imperial title “Kaiser.”

towards the Baltic. The Turks held the Black Sea coast. Archangel, therefore, was Russia's only harbour, and except from June to September, Archangel is ice-bound.

Describing the winter cold in northern Russia, a sixteenth-century Englishman wrote: "The very water that distilleth out of the moist wood they lay upon the fire is presently congealed and frozen, so that in one and the self-same firebrand a man shall see both fire and ice" (!). At Archangel, even in summer, the writer added, "the mariners we left in the ship, in their going only from their cabins to the hatches, had their breath oftentimes so suddenly taken away that they eftsoons fell down as men very near dead."

Since Russia was isolated from the West during several months of the year, Ivan was not able to eradicate the marks of Tartar influence. At the time of his death, the country still belonged to the East. The people wore turbans and flowing robes. Their manners, moreover, like their clothes, were essentially Asiatic. Yet one bond—and that a very strong one—linked them to Europe: the Russians were Christians.

2.—PETER THE GREAT

A period of disorder followed the death of Ivan the Terrible (1584). This was ended in 1613 by Michael Romanoff, the first of a new line of czars. The house of Romanoff held the throne for three centuries—until the revolution of 1917. Its accession marks the beginning of the history of Russia as a European Power.

Michael (1613-45) was a very able ruler. Under him, and under his son, Alexis (1645-76), and his grandson, Feodore III (1676-82), the regeneration of Russia proceeded apace. Not, however, till Feodore's brother, Peter, came to the throne did the nations of Europe awake to the fact that a new and powerful state had arisen in their midst. The story of this czar's reign is one of the romances of history.

As a child, Peter showed little promise of future greatness. After his father's death, which occurred while he was still an infant, the boy passed into the charge of his brother, Feodore. The latter shamefully ill-treated him.

To escape the misery of his lonely life at the Kremlin, the palace-fortress of Moscow, Peter used to creep out into the streets, and spend his days playing in taverns and in the cottages of rude, unlettered artisans. He gained, therefore, very little of the learning taught in books. None the less, he received an education which served him well in later years. He acquired a knowledge of the practical side of life, and of the hopes and difficulties of the people he was soon to rule.

To the circumstances of the boy's upbringing may be attributed the vices and virtues of the man. Though, as Czar, Peter tamed and civilized a nation, he never learned to tame or civilize himself.

Unable to accept a rebuff, or to restrain a desire, he became, when thwarted, a fiend incarnate. He had his son, Alexis, flogged to death in 1718 for daring to oppose his will; on one occasion, after the suppression of a revolt, he had a thousand men slaughtered in cold blood, and eighteen hundred others tortured with the knout, he himself wielding that dreaded implement. For days on end he would give himself up to orgies of drunken debauchery.

Yet, normally, he was of a sunny, jovial disposition. All who knew him found him a delightful companion. Brave as the proverbial lion, he stood, when grown to manhood, nearly seven feet high, and was as strong as the proverbial ox. Though rough and quick-tempered, moreover, he was scrupulously loyal and honest—a dangerous enemy, but a very good friend.

In 1682, Czar Feodore died, childless. Ivan, the second of the sons of Czar Alexis (see the table on page 59), was physically and mentally defective. Peter, therefore, was raised to the throne, though Ivan reigned nominally as co-czar with him.

At the time of his accession, Peter was barely ten years old. During his minority, his sister, Sophia, acted as Regent. In 1689—while William III and James II were contending for the crown of Britain—Peter, then in his eighteenth year, declared the regency at an end and, sending his sister to a nunnery, took the reins of government into his own hands.

He had nothing to fear from his imbecile brother. The latter, therefore, was allowed to pose as co-ruler during the few remaining years of his life. Ivan died in 1696.

As a boy, Peter had made many friends among the foreign residents at Moscow. From them he learned how far the Russians lagged behind other European nations

in the pursuit of the arts of civilization. As Czar, therefore, he saw that Russia, if ever she were to play a big part in the affairs of the world, must adopt Western methods and manners; also that she must substitute for semi-barbarous levies, which hitherto had fought her battles, an army modelled on the European pattern, and that she must obtain an outlet to the sea—a window, as he put it, through which she could look abroad.

He chose a Scottish adventurer, Patrick Gordon, as his chief adviser in military matters. Subsequently, he placed Gordon in command of his forces, and, in 1695, taking advantage of the war then raging between Turkey and the Holy League (page 51), instructed the general to attack Azov, a Turkish stronghold on the Black Sea.

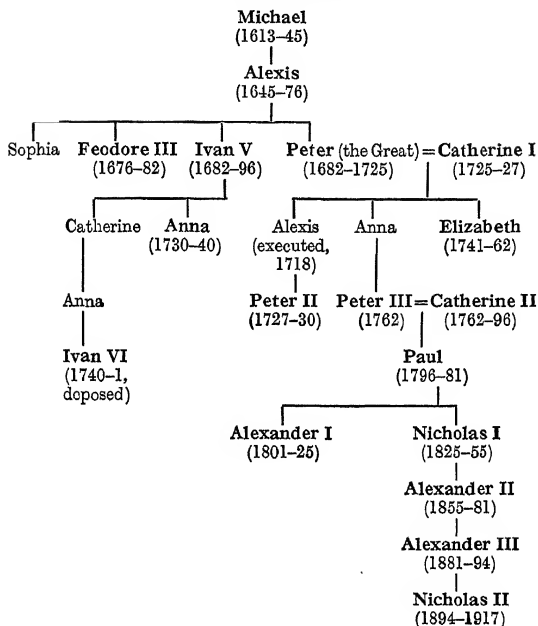
The attack proved unsuccessful. But Peter—who on this occasion served in the army as a common soldier—and Gordon both profited from the experience. Straightway they planned another assault. This time (1696) they achieved their purpose. Russia at last gained a port.

Peter then determined to go abroad, so that he might see with his own eyes the wonders of the civilization of the West. He was absent from his kingdom for nearly a year. During this time he travelled in England, France, Germany, and Holland—not as a sovereign, but as a student. His object was to learn how things were made and done, and how people lived, not to enjoy princely state.

While in Holland, Peter donned the wide breeches of a Dutch labourer, and engaged himself to work in a shipyard at Amsterdam. Then he crossed to England. King William III wished to entertain him royally, and placed at his disposal a house at Deptford, near London. The house belonged to John Evelyn,¹ the Treasurer of Greenwich Hospital.

¹ John Evelyn (1620–1707) is best known on account of his *Diary*. This, like the famous *Diary* of Samuel Pepys (1633–1703), is an invaluable source of information concerning the social life of England in the seventeenth century.

THE HOUSE OF ROMANOFF



The Czar accepted the loan of the house, but refused the entertainment. He preferred to pass his days in the dockyard, and in the workshops of the district. In the evenings he would sit in taverns, drinking with his companions.

After the Russian monarch had gone, John Evelyn claimed compensation from the Government for damage which had been done to his house. "I can scarcely describe it to your honours," he wrote: "locks broken, doors unhinged, and much of the furniture lost or destroyed." The Government made the owner a grant of £350.

Evelyn's house escaped lightly. A mansion where Peter lodged in Germany was left, we are told, "in such a ruinous state that the whole of it had to be rebuilt." For trifles such as life and pro-

perty the Russian monarch had no respect. On one occasion, while in Germany, he bitterly complained because the authorities of a certain town would not allow an innocent victim to be broken on the wheel so that he might see how the instrument worked. "What a fuss," he exclaimed, "to make about the life of a man!"

Yet Peter, despite his many faults, was gifted with a wonderful vigour of mind, and with that infinite capacity for taking pains which is the essence of genius.

The Czar induced some 700 English artisans to go back with him to Russia to assist in the making of the bridges, ships, canals, and other works which he purposed to construct. He also brought a number of Dutch and German workmen to the country. The Russians not unnaturally resented this influx of favoured foreigners; nor did they take kindly to the "German ideas"—shaved faces, the wearing of short coats, and so forth—which their ruler bade them adopt.

In 1698, Peter had to face a serious rebellion. But his remodelled army, led by Patrick Gordon, quickly suppressed the rising. The ringleaders were mercilessly put to death, and Peter ordered that their headless bodies should be left exposed to view throughout the winter. So the monarch, who tamed a nation but could not tame himself, thought to make it clear to his subjects that he was indeed Peter the Great, Czar of all the Russias.

3.—"THE PYRRHUS OF THE NORTH"

Peter returned to Moscow from the West convinced that access to the Baltic was essential to the development of Russia. But how was that to be obtained? The Baltic coast belonged to Sweden (see the map on page 61). Sweden could boast the most formidable army in northern Europe.

The accession, in 1697, of a fifteen-year-old boy, Charles XII, to the Swedish throne, seemed to afford Russia the opportunity her ruler sought. The youth and inexperience of King Charles tempted other Powers also to chal-



RUSSIA AT THE ACCESSION OF PETER THE GREAT

lenge Sweden's claim to supremacy in the North.¹ In 1699, Denmark, Poland and Russia entered into a league against their common enemy. The allies looked for an easy victory ; they expected to find the Swedes without a leader. They made a very big mistake.

Instead of waiting to be attacked, Charles XII, who was a born soldier, immediately assumed the offensive, and set about to defeat his adversaries singly before they could unite their widely separated forces. First, he dealt with the Danes. In April, 1700, he crossed the Baltic, swooped down on Copenhagen, and speedily brought the

¹ Gustavus Adolphus (1611-32), the hero of the Thirty Years War, won for Sweden the leadership of northern Europe. Sweden retained that position throughout the seventeenth century. For the story of the reign of King Gustavus, the reader is referred to Book II of this series, page 168 *et seq.*

king of Denmark to terms. Then he turned upon the Russians.

Sailing straight from Copenhagen, he landed on the south coast of the Gulf of Finland, where Peter the Great, with an army 60,000 strong, was besieging Narva. The Swedish king could muster only 8,000 soldiers, but he did not hesitate to order an attack; and in the battle which followed—a fight between discipline and numbers—the Russian host was routed.

Charles next marched against the Poles. Within a year he had beaten them as soundly as he had beaten his other enemies. The Poles, however, he determined to humiliate; and, in 1702, having occupied Warsaw, their capital, he sought to impose on them terms which even a vanquished people could not accept. The Poles, therefore, renewed the struggle, and, though defeated time after time in the field, kept the war going till 1707. But, in the end, they had to submit.

Charles then bade fair to make himself the arbiter of Europe. To his camp there came from Versailles an embassy to solicit Swedish support in the War of the Spanish Succession (page 35). To his camp there also came, as the emissary of Britain and her allies, no less a personage than the Duke of Marlborough, with the laurels of Blenheim and Ramillies still fresh upon his brow. The Swedish king, however, decided not to participate in the western war. Though flattered by the attention paid to him, his pride forbade him to engage in a conflict in which he must play a minor part.

Besides, he still had a little matter to settle on his own account.

After the battle of Narva, Peter the Great, undaunted by defeat, reorganized his forces, and returned to the attack. Between 1702 and 1707 he overran half the Swedish provinces on the Baltic. There, in 1703, at the mouth of the river Neva, he laid the foundations of a

great new city. This city he named St. Petersburg.¹ He intended to make it the capital of his empire.

The site selected by Peter for his capital was not altogether a good one. It lay in too remote a corner of the Russian dominions to be a convenient administrative centre. The surrounding country, moreover, was barren, marshy, and subject to frequent inundations. The difficulties of erecting a city in such a place were almost insurmountable.

Yet Peter doggedly stuck to his purpose. For several years he kept thousands of labourers constantly at work digging canals to drain the marshes, and dragging to the spot whole forests for use as piles to support buildings. He recognized the strategic and commercial importance of the Neva estuary. He was bent, moreover, on giving Russia a capital which should look directly towards the west. Moscow, the old capital, was essentially an Eastern city. The new capital, he determined, should be a Western city.

And slowly but surely it came into being. Churches gradually rose from the marsh, and stately public buildings modelled on those of Paris and London. Schools also sprang up, and industries were started; whilst from all parts of Europe the indefatigable Czar collected treasures to fill the libraries and galleries of art. To provide the city with a population, he transported thither thousands and thousands of Russian peasants, and he required that each of his nobles should build a house in it.

The founding of St. Petersburg did not greatly perturb Charles XII. The Swedish king thought that one blow at the heart of Russian power would suffice to force the Czar to surrender all his conquests. In the spring of 1708, therefore, he began a march on Moscow.

He followed, it may be noted, almost the identical route taken by Napoleon Bonaparte one hundred and four years later. In other respects also the Russian campaigns of Charles and Napoleon were strangely alike. Each ended in disaster to its author; in each case, disaster was due largely to the badness of the roads and to the abnormal severity of the weather.

Forced to plunge through marsh and morass, Charles

¹ In 1914 St. Petersburg was re-named Petrograd. When the Great War broke out, the Russians wished their capital to have a Russian, not a German, name. In 1924, on the death of Lenin, one of the revolutionary leaders, its name was changed to Leningrad. After the revolution of 1917, Moscow was again made the capital of the country.

found progress terribly slow. When winter came, he was still far from his goal. Food and supplies then became difficult to get, and disease ravaged his army. With the courage of despair he boldly pushed on, but in the spring of 1709, when Peter the Great took the field against him, his wasted forces were in no condition to fight. At the battle of Pultava (June, 1709) the Russians amply avenged their defeat at Narva. The Swedes, hungry and footsore, and outnumbered by nearly three to one, could only sell their lives dearly. "At last," exclaimed the victorious Czar, "the foundations of St. Petersburg stand firm."

Charles XII escaped from the stricken field of Pultava. Attended by a few horsemen, he made his way to Turkey. There he stayed for some time trying to involve his hosts in a war with Russia. His efforts met with no response. So finally he returned to Sweden and, though discredited even in the eyes of his own subjects, contrived until 1718 to maintain the impossible struggle against his enemies. In 1718, while he was fighting the Danes in Norway,¹ a stray bullet passed through his head and killed him.

Charles XII was one of the splendid failures of history. Though a man of sterling qualities, gifted to the highest degree, his talents availed him not, and in the end he brought only ruin on himself and his country. For this reason he is commonly referred to as "the Pyrrhus of the North."

Pyrrhus was an old-time king of Epirus, a state in the northern part of the Greek peninsula, bordering on the Adriatic. He reigned from 295 to 275 B.C., and aspired to emulate the exploits of his illustrious cousin, Alexander the Great, King of Macedon. Alexander conquered Greece and the ancient East. Pyrrhus dreamed of conquering Rome and the ancient West.

In 281 B.C., in pursuit of this ambition, he invaded Italy. There

¹ In 1397, by the Union of Kalmar (see Book II of this series, page 18), Norway was joined politically to Denmark. The country continued to be a Danish province till the nineteenth century. In 1814 it was united with Sweden. This union was dissolved in 1905. Norway then again became an independent kingdom

and elsewhere he gained a number of remarkable victories. Like Charles XII, however, he had no idea how to make success in battle serve political ends; and each of his victories was as costly as any defeat.

After the death of Charles XII, Prussia joined the ranks of Sweden's enemies. The Swedes then, their resources exhausted, could but beg for peace, and accept the hard terms imposed on them. By the treaty of Nystädt (1721), they were required to make full restitution to Poland, and to hand over important territories to Denmark and Prussia (page 76). Russia, however, got the lion's share of the booty. Russia acquired Carelia, Ingria, Esthonia, and Livonia—in fact, all the Swedish possessions on the east of the Baltic, with the exception of Finland (see the map on page 61).

Sweden promised also to surrender Finland. That province, however, did not actually come under Russian rule till 1809. None the less, Sweden in 1721 finally lost the leadership of northern Europe. She sank, indeed, to the level of a third-rate Power.

4.—THE PARTITION OF POLAND

At the time of the signing of the Peace of Nystädt, the Russian senate of nobles conferred on Peter the title of "Father of his country." The Czar richly deserved the distinction. He did not live, however, to see the completion of the work he had begun. Peter died in 1725; not till the accession of the Czarina Catherine II (1762-96) did Russia definitely take rank as a Great Power.

In character, Catherine had much in common with Peter; and the story of her private life is best forgotten. But though, as a woman, she showed herself to be heartless and cruel, wanting in all moral sense, she must be accounted one of the greatest of the queens of history. Catherine did for Russia what Queen Elizabeth did for England: she made the Russian people a nation, and from then right down to our own day the Powers of

Europe had always to reckon with the restless activities of the vast Slav empire she welded together.

This famous Czarina spent her girlhood in Germany. Her father was a Prussian nobleman. In 1745, the heir of Russia, attracted by her beauty, made her his wife, and took her off to Moscow. Seventeen years later, it fell to her lot to govern her adopted country.

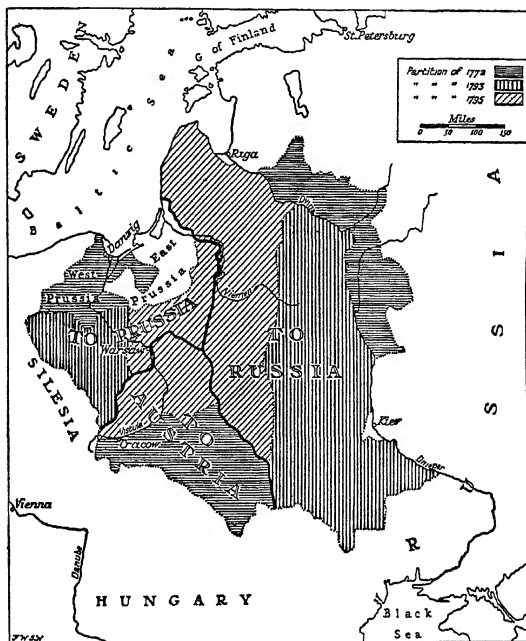
Russia at that time seemed to be in danger of falling back into its Asiatic ways. Peter the Great's immediate successors were, for the most part, weak rulers, reactionary in their tendencies. Under them, the work of reform and development made very slow progress and, on all sides, Russia's old enemies began again to encroach on her territories. The Turks even reconquered Azov.

Catherine's crotchety, pleasure-loving husband, who, in 1762, came to the throne as Peter III (see the table on page 59), was the weakest of these rulers. His ambitious, unscrupulous wife determined, therefore, to do away with him. In the very year of his accession, she contrived to have him murdered. Then, with the support of the army, she made herself ruler in his place.

For twenty-four years, Catherine whipped and brow-beat the Russian people. Her subjects, however, had good reason to be grateful to her. During her reign, she completely remodelled the administration of the country, and gave to it European institutions. Trade and industry she placed on an entirely new basis. A Westerner by birth, moreover, she appreciated the value of education, and founded schools and universities in all parts of her dominions.

"I came to Russia," said Catherine, "a poor girl. Russia has dowered me richly. But I have paid her back with Azov, the Crimea, and the Ukraine." Not content with recovering Azov, she annexed all the Turkish possessions north of the Black Sea. Subsequently she carried Russian arms into Moldavia and Wallachia (see the map

on page 42), and steadily advanced southward in the direction of the Bosphorus. From that time onward—till 1917, at any rate—to gain possession of Constanti-



THE PARTITIONS OF POLAND

nople, and so to control the Bosphorus, continued to be a chief aim of Russian statesmanship.

Catherine also added to the Russian empire a large part of Poland. Charles XII, when he ruined Sweden, also ruined Poland. After 1721 that country fell a prey to internal feuds, and was reduced to a condition of help-

lessness which at once excited the greed of ambitious foreign neighbours.

Catherine of Russia was deeply imbued with Peter the Great's idea of expansion towards the west. Had she dared, she would have made it her business to bring the whole of the Poles' disordered country under her rule. Austria and Prussia, however, claimed a share of spoil. So, rather than risk a war from which she might not gain anything, Catherine discreetly came to terms with those two Powers. In 1772, by mutual arrangement, Russia, Austria and Prussia carved off slices of Polish territory. In 1793, Russia and Prussia agreed to a second partition. In 1795, the robbers divided among themselves the little that was left.

For a century and a quarter, Poland ceased to exist. But the Poles during this time did not lose their national individuality. In 1918, while Russia, Austria and Prussia (the latter grown into the German Empire) were in the throes of revolution, they reappeared as a nation. The greater part of the old Polish kingdom was then constituted an independent republic.

The map on page 67 tells the tragedy of the three partitions of Poland.

CHAPTER IV

THE RISE OF PRUSSIA

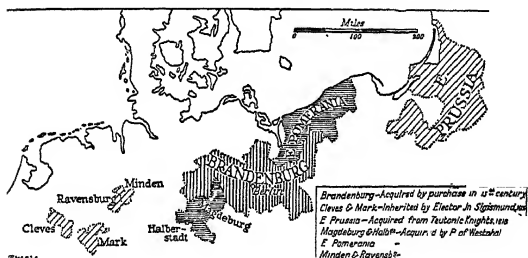
1.—THE GREAT ELECTOR

In the fifteenth century, the office of Emperor—or head of that so-called Holy Roman Empire which Napoleon Bonaparte finally overthrew in 1806—became, in effect, hereditary in the house of Hapsburg, the ducal family of Austria. Theoretically, however, it continued to be elective; according to the constitution of the Empire, certain German princes, known as the *electors*, had the right of

appointing their chief. One of these electors was the ruler of Brandenburg.

When the house of Hapsburg rose to power, Brandenburg, a north German state, was quite an unimportant principality; it extended for about one hundred miles to the east and to the west of Berlin. In 1415, the old line of electors died out. A wealthy nobleman, a certain Frederick of Hohenzollern, then bought the electorate; members of his family¹ ruled at Berlin until 1918, the last of them being the ex-German Emperor, William II.

Almost every one of these princes added something to



HOHENZOLLERN DOMINIONS IN 1648.

the Hohenzollern possessions. Not till the seventeenth century, however, did Brandenburg—destined to grow into the kingdom of Prussia and, later, to be the centre of the German Empire—become a formidable Power.

In 1609, the Elector John Sigismund inherited the small duchies of Cleves and Mark (see the map on this page), and so gained a hold on the Rhine country. A few years later, in 1618, just before the outbreak of the Thirty Years War (described in Book II of this series, Chapter X), the duchy of East Prussia also came under his rule. These were important acquisitions.

¹ Hohenzollern Castle, the original home of the Hohenzollern family, stood on the upper Danube, in what is now Würtemberg, one of the states of the modern German federation.

70 BUILDING OF THE MODERN WORLD—III

To understand how Prussia became a Hohenzollern possession, we must glance back to the Middle Ages.

In those days, the term "Prussia" was loosely applied to all the coast-lands on the east of the Baltic. Heathen Slav tribes inhabited that region.

In the thirteenth century, these tribes were conquered by the Teutonic Knights. The latter belonged to a religious Order of knighthood—similar to that of the Templars and the Hospitallers (page 42)—which had been established at the time of the Crusades. When Christian Europe abandoned its efforts to expel the Saracens from the Holy Land, the knights looked about for other occupation, and eventually undertook the conversion of the Prussians.

Some two centuries later, they themselves were conquered by the Poles. The king of Poland, however, though he incorporated the western part of Prussia in his dominions, gave back the eastern part to the Grand Master, or head, of the Teutonic order.

In the sixteenth century, while Luther was preaching in Germany, the knights broke away from the Roman Catholic Church, and their order was dissolved. But they retained their military organization; and a distant relation of the Elector of Brandenburg, a certain Albert Hohenzollern, who happened to be Grand Master at the time, assumed the title of duke. This office he made hereditary in his family; and he and his descendants ruled as dukes in East Prussia till 1618, when their line died out.

The duchy then passed to the last duke's next-of-kin—John Sigismund of Brandenburg (page 69).

In the Thirty Years War (1618–48), Brandenburg, having adopted the reformed religion, naturally espoused the Protestant cause. During the closing period of the war, the Elector played his cards well, and by the Peace of Westphalia, which brought the conflict to an end, secured further additions to his territories. In the west he gained the secularized bishoprics of Halberstadt, Magdeburg and Minden. He also acquired a strip of the Pomeranian coast. He hoped to get the whole of Pomerania. The Swedes, however, insisted on taking the western part of that country; and Brandenburg was not strong enough then to try conclusions with Sweden.

The map on page 69 shows the extent of the dominions ruled in 1648 by the elector of Brandenburg. They formed, it will be seen, an ill-jointed principality. The various provinces were separated from one another by foreign territories. Each, moreover, had its own system

of administration, and its own laws and institutions. The problem which confronted their ruler, the Elector Frederick William (1640–88), was how to weld them into a State.

Frederick William—or the Great Elector, as he is usually known (see the table on page 74)—was a man well fitted for this task. Coarse by nature, and devoid of scruples, he saw that the interests of his house depended on military strength. Despite the protests of the taxpayers, he set to work, therefore, to organize an army out of all proportion to the size and wealth of his dominions. This army he used as much for bullying his subjects as for intimidating neighbouring states; and, before he died in 1688, he had established a monarchy as absolute as that of the Bourbons in France.

The Great Elector spent most of his life either at war or preparing for war. But he did not neglect the arts of peace. When he came to the throne, Branderburg and Prussia were poor and undeveloped countries. In order to foster trade and industry, he sought, by means of gifts of money and land, to encourage clever foreigners—farmers and artisans—to settle in his dominions. In 1685, when Louis XIV revoked the Edict of Nantes (page 30), the Elector posted agents on the borders of France with instructions to advise and befriend fugitive Huguenots. In this way he induced some 50,000 industrious craftsmen to settle in and near his capital.

Berlin, unlike London, Paris, or Vienna, is not a city with a long and interesting history. Its growth dates only from the time of the Great Elector. In 1640 it was little more than a village; perhaps it had 7,000 inhabitants.

2.—KING FREDERICK WILLIAM I

The Great Elector was succeeded by his son, Frederick (1688–1713). The latter was a man of an altogether different type. Deformed from birth, and so incapable of physical exertion, he cared more for pleasure than for

work or war ; and he was one of the few Hohenzollern princes who added nothing to his family's dominions. None the less, he increased its dignity, for in 1701 he persuaded the Emperor to allow him to change his title from "elector" to "king."

When he assumed this royal rank, he was careful not to style himself "king of Brandenburg." As king of Brandenburg, he would still have ranked as a vassal of the Emperor. He wished to be a sovereign in full independence. Accordingly, he took his title from Prussia, a country on which the Emperor had no claim ; and the term "Prussia" gradually supplanted "Brandenburg" as the designation for all the Hohenzollern dominions.

Frederick, it may be noted, styled himself "king *in* Prussia." He could not call himself "king *of* Prussia," because he ruled only a part of that country ; western Prussia belonged to Poland.

The second of the kings in Prussia, Frederick William I (1713-40), was a reversion to the type of the Great Elector. His one object was the development of his kingdom as a military Power ; and the methods he adopted, though peculiar, proved extraordinarily successful.

While other European monarchs were ruining themselves and their countries by prodigal extravagance, Frederick William went to the other extreme ; he made himself ridiculous by his meanness. He at once dismissed the whole body of his father's showy Court functionaries, and set about to instil into his subjects, from the highest to the lowest, his own ideas of frugality and industry. When war came, Prussia, he resolved, should not lack resources on which to draw.

Often the king was to be seen in the streets of Berlin, angrily striking with his cane people who, he thought, were not attending to their business. Public expenditure he cut down to the last penny. He grudged his own household even the bare necessities of life.



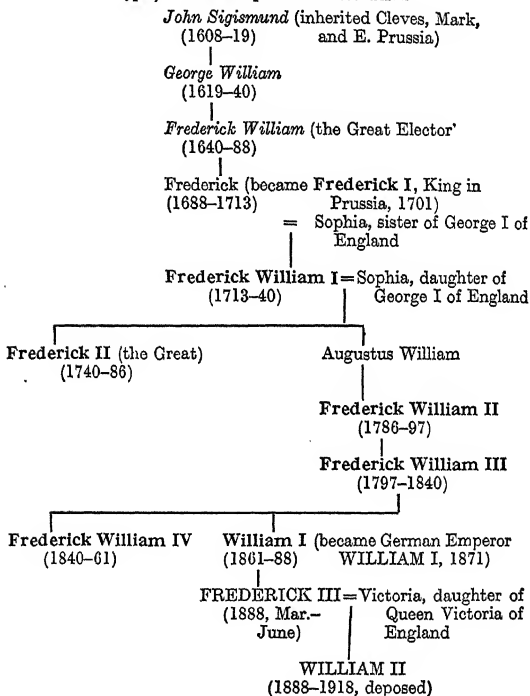
BERLIN IN 1688

Berlin, as this copy of an old print shows, was a very small town at the time of the Great Elector's death. Its population numbered about 20,000. To-day it is a city of more than 3,800,000 inhabitants.

74 BUILDING OF THE MODERN WORLD—III

THE HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN

NOTE.—*Electors of Brandenburg in italics; Prussian kings in black type; German emperors in CAPITALS.*



His children he subjected to a discipline which amounted to positive cruelty—particularly his eldest son, Frederick. Frederick William maintained that a boy's interests should be centred in shooting and drilling. Frederick thought only of music and books. The king, therefore, believed his son to be a coward and a weakling, and flew into a paroxysm of rage whenever he saw him. At meal-times he would suddenly hurl dishes at the head of the unoffending prince; day in and day out, he kicked, flogged, and bullied him unmercifully.

At length, driven to desperation, Frederick determined to run away to England. The king, however, got wind of the intention, and had him thrown into prison. The prince was then tried by court-martial, and sentenced to death. Only the personal intervention of the Emperor (Charles VI) prevented the carrying out of the sentence.

Though Frederick William spared his son's life, Frederick did not escape punishment. Handed over to the custody of exacting task-masters, he was forced to undergo a training in civil and military administration such as no other royal personage has ever received. This rigorous and irksome education had a powerful influence on the shaping of the character of the prince, whom, presently, we shall meet again as Frederick the Great, the most famous of Prussian kings.

Frederick William's one extravagance was his army ; upon it he lavished money. In the days of the Great Elector, the Prussian army had numbered 27,000 men. King Frederick William raised it to 84,000. Even France, with her greater wealth and much greater population, could not maintain so large a permanent establishment.

Later in the same century, a famous Frenchman, Mirabeau, observed : " War is the only industry of Prussia." Frederick William I started that industry. Passionately fond of military life, he never lost an opportunity of reviewing or drilling his troops ; and he took an inordinate pride in their appearance. Tall soldiers, in particular, appealed to him. He kept agents in all parts of Europe looking out for men of suitable physique for service in his regiment of Potsdam Guards, and he was prepared to pay almost any price for recruits.

To a stalwart seven-foot Irishman, whom one of his agents discovered in London, he offered a bounty of £1,300. Whether the Irishman found even the big sum of money adequate compensation for Prussian discipline we are not told. Frederick William's rigorous system of training was designed to teach men to prefer war to peace. In time of war, punishments were somewhat relaxed.

In 1709, after the battle of Pultava (page 64), Frederick

William made common cause with Sweden's enemies—Denmark, Poland and Russia—and overran Swedish, or western, Pomerania. He had long coveted that strip of territory (see the map on page 80). The treaty of Nystädt confirmed him in possession of it.

This was the only war in which he actually engaged. So, unlike the majority of soldier kings, he did not destroy the fighting machine he fashioned; and, while handing on to his heir the finest army in Europe, he handed on also a war chest full of money.

3.—THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION

King Frederick William I died in 1740. His much bullied son, Frederick II (1740–86), then in his twenty-ninth year, succeeded to the Prussian throne. During the latter part of his father's reign, the prince had lived in retirement, giving himself up to the pursuit of art and letters. That, as king, he would straightway embark on military adventures was the last thing which anyone expected of him. Yet the story of his reign is a long chronicle of wars.

Frederick—justly known as Frederick the Great—was without question the most remarkable soldier of his age. As an administrator, however, he has an even stronger title to fame. Despite his activities in the field, he found time to do more than any of his predecessors had done to promote the welfare of the Prussian people. By conquest the king doubled his territories. By statesmanship he made it possible for those lands to support more than twice their former population.

Personally he initiated the draining of swamps and other important agricultural schemes, the building of roads and canals, and the development of industries. Personally he drew up a new code of laws and, though he kept authority centred in himself, introduced in his realms a system of civil liberty far in advance of that in other countries. Also he accorded his subjects absolute free-



THE ROUND TABLE AT SANS SOUCI

From the painting by Adolf Menzel in the National Gallery, Berlin.

Frederick the Great is here seen in conversation with his circle of chosen friends, of whom many were Frenchmen. The creator of modern Prussia was a strong admirer of everything French. He spoke in French, carried on his correspondence in French, and, characteristically, gave a French name, Sans-Souci ("happy-go-lucky"), to his favourite mansion.

dom of worship. Further, it may be noted, he stimulated in them something of his own love of music and literature and art.

Frederick never allowed the preoccupations of war and State to divert him from the interests of his youth. A warm admirer of everything French, he regarded the culture of France as the highest in Europe; and, while modelling his monarchy on that of Louis XIV, he sought to make Berlin another Paris. He adopted the French tongue as the language of his Court; he chose the majority of his friends from among Frenchmen. Characteristically, he gave a French name, "Sans-Souci," to his favourite palace.

For several years his most intimate friend was Voltaire (1694–1778), the philosopher whose brilliant, witty, but violent writings helped largely to bring about in Europe that intellectual change to which the French Revolution gave expression. From 1749 to 1753, Voltaire lived at Sans-Souci as Frederick's guest.¹ The two men were then inseparable, and the philosopher inspired the king to feverish literary activity. Frederick, however, though the author of scores of poems and essays, excelled as a critic rather than as a writer. Once he sent some of his verses to Voltaire, asking that they might be returned with comments and corrections. "See," exclaimed the philosopher, "what a quantity of his dirty linen the king has sent me to wash!" This happened, it is only fair to add, after the strange friendship between the man of action and the man of words had cooled.

Events in Austria awoke in Frederick the Hohenzollern spirit of aggression. In 1740, when the Emperor Charles VI died (see table between pages 40 and 41), the male line of the Hapsburgs came to an end. Charles's sole heir was his daughter, Maria Theresa. A woman had never worn the imperial crown. So a difficult succession question arose. Eventually, in 1742, the electors conferred the title of Emperor on the Duke of Bavaria²; and, as Charles VII, the duke reigned from 1742 to 1745.

Charles VI had expected that something of this sort would happen. Seeing, however, that he had induced the Powers of Europe to agree to the so-called Pragmatic

¹ The reader who would know more about the Prussian Court at this time, and about the character of the king, should make a point of reading Lord Macaulay's essay, *Frederick the Great*.

² Not since 1411 had a non-Hapsburg prince been raised to the imperial office.

Sanction, or solemn will, by which he bequeathed his personal possessions to his daughter, he died believing that Maria Theresa would have no difficulty in assuming the sovereignty of Austria, Hungary, Bohemia, and the other Hapsburg lands.

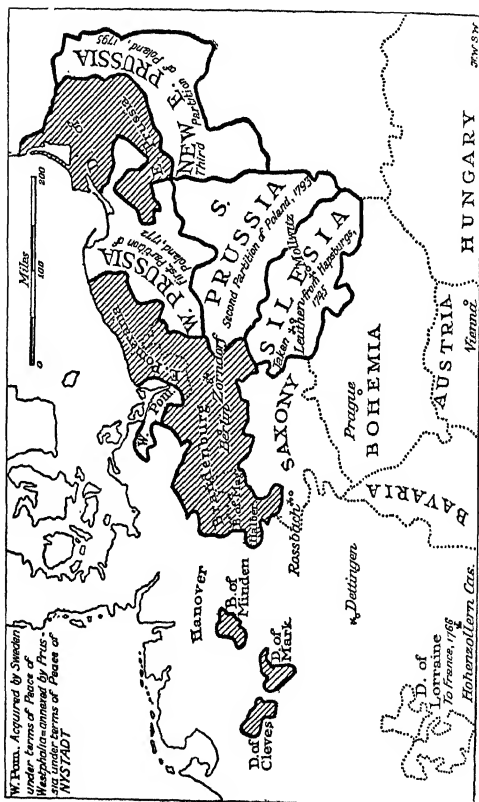
King Frederick William I was among the sovereigns who had guaranteed the Pragmatic Sanction. Under somewhat similar circumstances, in 1839, another Frederick William—the third of that name (see the table on page 74)—guaranteed the neutrality of Belgium. In 1914, it suited the purpose of his great-grandson, the ex-German Emperor William II, to treat that guarantee as “a scrap of paper.” Frederick the Great so treated the guarantee given by Frederick William I. On the death of Charles VI he could not resist the opportunity of using his father’s army and his father’s hoarded wealth in order to win fame for himself at the expense of the house of Hapsburg.

In 1740, only two months after the Emperor’s death, he trumped up a claim to Silesia (see the map on page 80), a prosperous and fertile country which had long been a Hapsburg possession. Without even troubling to declare war, the Prussian king invaded the province and, as the result of a decisive victory gained over the Austrians at Mollwitz (April 10, 1741), made himself master of it.

Frederick’s bold theft excited greed in other quarters. The kings of France and Spain, the duke of Savoy, and the duke of Bavaria (subsequently the Emperor Charles VII), though all signatories to the Pragmatic Sanction, proceeded to lay claim to parts of the Hapsburg dominions.

In the circumstances, Maria Theresa might well have despaired of keeping her heritage intact. Her treasury was empty, her army unprepared, and there was no strong bond to unite the peoples of the various Hapsburg provinces.¹ The young queen, however, was endowed

¹ Austria, for example, was inhabited by Germans, Bohemia by Czechs and Slovaks, Hungary by Magyars. These races had widely



with a courage that rose superior to difficulties. Her energy, her resource, and—to an even greater extent, perhaps—her beauty won for her the sympathy and support of all her subjects. Recruits flocked in thousands to her standard.

In 1742, acting on the advice of the English ambassador, Maria Theresa ceded Silesia to Frederick. Having thus come to terms with her most formidable foe, she was able to concentrate her strength against her other enemies, and, by the spring of 1743, had not only driven the French back to the Rhine but seemed to be on the point of making herself mistress of all Germany.

Her success alarmed Frederick the Great. Fearing for the security of his conquest, the Prussian king again treacherously took up arms, and in 1745 routed four Austrian armies. At this time, however, Maria Theresa did not lack for allies: Britain and Holland, anxious to maintain "the balance of power" in Europe, had come to her aid. In 1748 the British gained a great victory over the French and Bavarians at Dettingen (a village in Bavaria, on the river Main); and, although at the battle of Fontenoy, two years later, the French avenged this defeat, gold sent from London enabled Maria Theresa to hold her own against her adversaries.

At the battle of Dettingen, King George II (1727-60) in person led his troops. This was the last occasion on which a British sovereign took the field. Though a Hanoverian by birth, and able to speak hardly a word of English—

Dapper King George was a fighter grim,
With some English blood at the heart of him,
And a man of wrath, and a man of his fists,
And a wrecker of orthodox strategists.

In order to drive the fiery little man back to his kingdom, the French stirred up a Jacobite rebellion in Scotland—a rebellion,

divergent ideas and interests. During the Great War (1914-18), the Hapsburg empire was finally broken up and, by the peace settlement of 1919, the peoples which comprised it were re-grouped on a national basis. Bohemia became the centre of the present republic of Czecho-Slovakia. Austria and Hungary were also constituted independent republics.

that is to say, with the object of restoring the house of Stuart to the British throne. In 1745, the representative of the Stuart cause, Prince Charles Edward Stuart—or the Young Pretender as he is known, to distinguish him from his father, the Old Pretender (page 32)—landed in the north of Scotland. The Highlanders rallied round him. Sweeping southward, the prince crossed the English border and advanced as far as Derby. There, however, he was forced to turn back, and eventually, in April, 1746, on Culloden Moor, near Inverness, his army was routed. After the suppression of “the Forty-five” (i.e. the rebellion of 1745), the house of Stuart abandoned its dream of regaining the British throne.

The War of the Austrian Succession dragged on till 1748. It was then brought to an end by a treaty signed at Aix-la-Chapelle. This treaty, though it allowed Frederick the Great to retain Silesia, restored what is called the *status quo ante bellum*—that is, it left things exactly as they had been before the fighting began. So Maria Theresa succeeded, after all, in holding together the greater part of her heritage. In 1745, moreover, on the death of Charles VII, her husband (see the table facing page 40) was elected Emperor. Thus she succeeded also in confirming her family in its long tenure of the imperial office.

4.—THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR

Maria Theresa could not reconcile herself to the surrender of Silesia. Before the ink was dry on the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, she began to lay plans for the recovery of the lost province. So she started the Seven Years' War (1756-63).

This was the most important of the wars we have to consider in the present volume. Nearly all the Great Powers took part in it, and it raged in every quarter of the world: on the coasts of Africa, in the West Indies, in India proper, and in North America the fighting was as fierce as on the plains of central Europe. Of the conflict in its broader aspects we shall have something to say in subsequent chapters. Here we are concerned primarily with its effects on the fortunes of Austria and Prussia.

Maria Theresa deemed a Franco-Austrian alliance to be essential to her schemes. But for two hundred years France and Austria had been bitter rivals ; in 1750 there was hardly a statesman in Europe who believed that their long-standing enmity could be converted into friendship. Maria Theresa, however, stuck to her purpose. And in 1756 she accomplished the seemingly impossible : France and Austria entered into a formal alliance.

Franco-British relations helped the Empress to bring



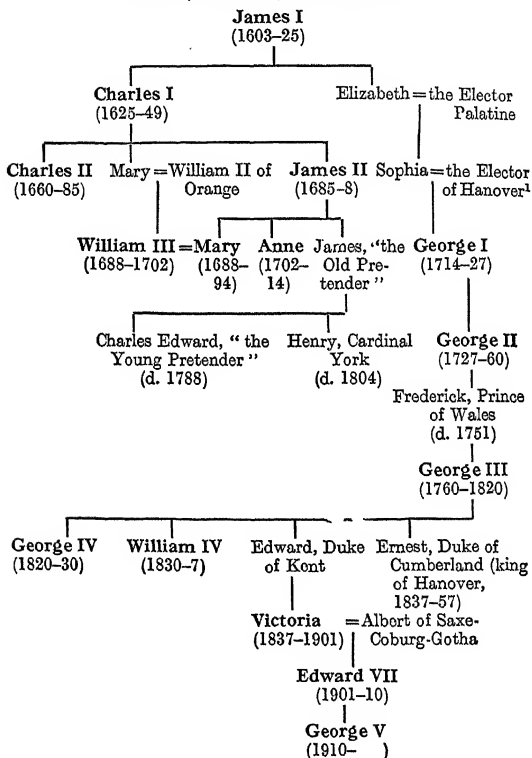
MEDAL STRUCK TO COMMEMORATE THE BATTLE OF
DETTINGEN (1743)

about this diplomatic revolution. A world-wide struggle for empire between France and Britain forms the outstanding feature of the history of the eighteenth century. About 1750 the struggle reached a crisis, and each of the two Powers engaged in it began to look round for allies.

Britain, after prolonged negotiations, came to terms with Prussia. By a treaty, known as the Convention of Westminster, concluded in 1756, the British Government pledged itself to support Frederick the Great in the event of an Austrian attack on Silesia ; whilst Frederick, for his part, undertook to defend Hanover against the French. Hanover was then a dependency of the British crown.

84 BUILDING OF THE MODERN WORLD—III

TABLE SHOWING THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE HOUSES OF
STUART, HANOVER, AND WINDSOR



¹ In 1714 the ruler of Hanover became King George I of Great Britain. The monarchies of Britain and Hanover were thus united. The union lasted till 1837, when Queen Victoria ascended the British throne. Constitutional usage debarred a woman from ruling in Hanover. That country, therefore, passed to the Queen's uncle, the Duke of Cumberland. Thirty years later it was absorbed by Prussia.

The Anglo-Prussian alliance had the immediate effect of pushing France into the arms of Austria. And France was not the only friend on whom Austria then could count; by 1756 the astute Empress had enlisted the support of Russia and Sweden, also of Saxony and other states of the Empire.

Frederick of Prussia laboured under no illusion as to her object in building up this coalition. Believing that it would be fatal to his interests to await attack, he resolved to borrow a leaf from the book of Charles XII (page 61), and to strike before his enemies were ready. At first his bold strategy proved successful. In 1756, he suddenly invaded Saxony. Having occupied that country, he swept into Bohemia, and very nearly succeeded in taking Prague, the capital. In June, 1757, however, he suffered a heavy defeat, and was forced to fall back. The storm, which had long been brewing, then violently burst upon him.

While the French invaded Hohenzollern territories from the West, the Austrians occupied the coveted Silesia, and the Russians marched into East Prussia. At the same time, a Swedish army landed in Pomerania. Assailed from every point of the compass, it seemed impossible that Prussia could escape destruction. Even Frederick's friends gave up all for lost. The king himself, however, did not despair, and his military genius soon turned the tables on his enemies.

On November 5, 1757, he gained a remarkable victory over the French and the imperialists at Rossbach, in Saxony. A month later, having hastened to the East, he routed an Austrian army, twice as numerous as his own, at Leuthen, near Breslau, and so once more made himself the master of Silesia. The most competent of all military critics described the battle of Leuthen as "a masterpiece." Said Napoleon Bonaparte: "Of itself, it is sufficient to entitle Frederick to a place in the first rank among generals."

The Prussian king next gave his attention to the Russians, who then were carrying fire and the sword into the very heart of Brandenburg. In 1758, he met them at Zorndorf, near Frankfurt, and there meted out to them as heavy a punishment as he had inflicted on his other adversaries.

As a result of these victories, Frederick's fame filled the world. British admiration took a tangible form. In 1758, the British fitted out an army which operated against the French on the Rhine, and so protected Prussia against attack from the west. In that same year, the Swedes, to all intents and purposes, withdrew from the war. Frederick, therefore, was left pitted only against Austria and Russia.

Even so, the odds against him were tremendous. By 1758 his treasury had been emptied, and his territories devastated again and again by invaders. The majority of his seasoned veterans, moreover, had fallen in battle. That he might not lack the sinews of war, Britain provided him with gold. But Britain could not supply him with armies; and the total population of Prussia did not exceed five millions. Frederick, therefore, could not win all the battles in which he engaged. Berlin more than once fell into the hands of his foes; and in 1761 it seemed that, despite his military skill, he must be vanquished. In 1761 the British subsidy was withdrawn.

The policy—or rather the cost—of sending large sums of money to Prussia had never been popular in Britain, though for several years the Prime Minister, William Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham), successfully defended it. Pitt saw that in enabling Frederick to keep the field lay Britain's surest means of preventing the despatch of French reinforcements to America. "I am conquering Canada," he said, "on the plains of Germany."

In 1759, General Wolfe captured Quebec (page 99). In the following year the conquest of Canada was completed. Thus Pitt's protest for paying Prussia to fight ceased to exist. In that same year King George II died; in 1761 his successor dismissed Pitt from office. George III's dislike for that masterful statesman was stronger even than his grandfather's.

At about the same time, Russian policy—happily for

Frederick—also underwent a change. In 1762, Peter III (page 66) came to the throne. This czar, an enthusiastic admirer of Frederick, at once made peace with Prussia. "Frederick and Peter," he said, "together will conquer the world."

The czar did not live *long* enough to attempt this ambitious scheme. A few weeks after his accession, he was murdered. His queen and successor, however, the famous Catherine the Great, shared his respect for Frederick, and duly ratified the peace with Prussia. In the circumstances, Maria Theresa had no alternative other than to abandon the struggle with her inveterate foe. Shortly afterwards, France and Britain came to terms.

The peace between these two Powers was signed at Paris in 1763 (page 190). The peace between Austria and Prussia was signed at Hubertsburg.

The latter treaty made final the cession of Silesia to Prussia. This was a heavy blow to the pride of Maria Theresa. In 1772, the Empress received a measure of compensation; the First Partition of Poland (page 68) made up—in extent at any rate—for her loss. But by bringing under her rule a people alien in tradition and race, she still further increased the difficulty of governing the motley Hapsburg lands.

Silesia lay within the bounds of the Holy Roman Empire. The country, moreover, was inhabited by Germans. So, too, was West Prussia, acquired by Frederick the Great in 1772. Frederick took the smallest but the most valuable portion of the Polish plunder. When he acquired West Prussia, he united his two main dominions—East Prussia and Brandenburg (see the map on page 80). Thenceforth he and his successors ruled not merely as kings *in* Prussia, but as kings *of* Prussia.

The Holy Roman Empire lingered on in name till 1806. Frederick the Great, however, really destroyed it, destroyed the mediæval notion of German unity. After 1763 there were two chiefs in central Europe. While the

Protestant States of the north followed the leadership of the house of Hohenzollern, the authority of the house of Hapsburg was restricted to the lands, mostly Roman Catholic, bordering on the Danube—in the south and the south-east.

CHAPTER V

FRANCO-BRITISH RIVALRY IN NORTH AMERICA

1.—THE SCHEMES OF KING LOUIS XIV

At the close of the seventeenth century, the greater part of the North American continent was not only undeveloped but unexplored. European settlements were restricted to the St. Lawrence valley and the Atlantic seaboard.

Canada—and Canada meant the St. Lawrence valley—belonged to France. So did Cape Breton and the other islands at the mouth of Canada's great river. The French also held the peninsula of Acadia, or Nova Scotia¹ as we call it now; whilst in the south, round the lower waters of the Mississippi, they had established the colony of Louisiana (named after the *Grand Monarque*).

Newfoundland was debated ground. The British and the French both laid claim to it; and in the north, on the shores of Hudson Bay, men of those two races fought among themselves, and with natives, for the skins of

¹ Acadia acquired the name of Nova Scotia during the reign of James I. British sailors then temporarily dispossessed the French of their colony. In 1621, King James made a grant of the peninsula to Sir William Alexander, one of his Scottish courtiers, who set about there to establish a New Scotland (Nova Scotia).

To encourage settlement, the king created a special order of baronets. There are still eighty-seven "baronets of Nova Scotia." But these titles, proudly borne, constitute—together with the name of Nova Scotia—the only remaining traces of Alexander's enterprise. In 1632, King Charles I restored to the French their lost Acadia.

beaver, ermine, fox and marten—rich merchandise in the markets of Europe.

Florida and Mexico ¹ belonged to Spain. Between the peninsulas of Florida and Arcadia, strung out along the coast, lay various British settlements: in the north, the four New England colonies, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut; in the centre, New York and New Jersey, former Dutch settlements, together with Maryland, a Roman Catholic colony, and the Quaker colony of Pennsylvania; and in the south, “the old dominion” of Virginia, the first of Britain’s colonies, and the two Carolinas. The number of these colonies was increased to thirteen—the famous “thirteen colonies”—by the founding of Delaware in 1701, and of Georgia in 1732.²

In the year 1700 there were, roughly, a million British settlers in North America. French settlers did not number more than 100,000. Yet the French aspired to oust their rivals from the continent; Louis XIV, we have seen (page 18), aimed at linking Canada and Louisiana by a chain of forts, and then at closing in upon the British and driving them into the sea.

How, we may ask, could the French, outnumbered by ten to one, have hoped to achieve their object? The disparity of strength between them and their rivals was not really so great as figures suggest. The French formed one community—a military community, despotically governed; their rulers had a definite object in view. The British settlers were agriculturists, devoid of military

¹ Mexico was then a larger country than now. In the nineteenth century, a part of the old Spanish colony (the states of Texas, California and New Mexico) was incorporated in the United States of America.

² The early history of the British North American colonies is told in Book II of this series, page 140 *et seq.* Georgia, it may be noted, owed its origin to the philanthropic efforts of General George Oglethorpe (1698–1785). The general founded the colony as a place of refuge for unfortunate debtors whom he rescued from the English gaols.

ambition, and they formed not one but several communities, each intensely proud of its individuality, jealous of its neighbours, and resentful of interference on the part of the mother country in its affairs. Though geographically connected, the British colonies were almost entirely wanting in political cohesion.

The French, again, could count on native support. The Red-men, repelled by the austerity of the British, were attracted by the gay nature of the French. The latter would play with them, dance with them, hunt with them; they would even don war-paint and feathers. To them, therefore, the children of the wild readily gave their sympathy and dreadful help.

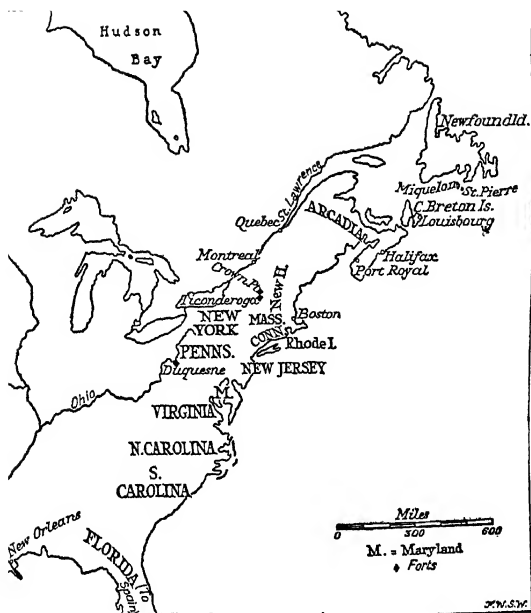
When laying his plans, King Louis made only one serious miscalculation. He underestimated the importance of sea power.

In 1688 the *Grand Monarque* refused to acknowledge that the British people had the right to dethrone their king. So he forced King James II's chosen successor, William III, to take up arms. The dynastic war, thus begun, developed into a world-wide struggle—a struggle for empire—which engaged the British and the French almost continuously for more than a century.

The first phase, the War of the League of Augsburg—or “King William's War,” as people called it in America—was brought to an end in 1697 by the inconclusive Peace of Ryswick (page 32). It was a war of border raids; the French and their Indian allies inflicted terrible suffering on the New England colonists.

The sailor-folk of Massachusetts did something to avenge their fellows. In 1690 the men of Boston¹—then

¹ Boston (Mass.) takes its name from Boston (Lincs). The latter is now a place of minor importance. Down to the end of the sixteenth century, it was the chief harbour in England, much frequented by traders of the Hanseatic League. As the name of Boston (Mass.) serves to remind us, the New England colonies were largely peopled by Puritans from Lincolnshire.



NORTH AMERICA IN 1688

a town of 7,000 inhabitants, now a town of 750,000 inhabitants—fitted out an expedition which took and sacked Port Royal (now Annapolis), the chief French settlement in Arcadia.

Sir William Phipps, a ship's carpenter who had turned buccaneer and bought a knighthood with captured Spanish treasure, led the venture. Later in the year, the gallant Phipps—in command of a motley fleet of thirty-five vessels—sailed up the St. Lawrence, and made a spirited, though unsuccessful, attack on Quebec.

With the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession (page 35)—“Queen Anne’s War,” as people called it in the West—began the second phase of the struggle. In America this followed a course similar to that of the first. The French again ravaged New England settlements. The sailors of Massachusetts again attacked Port Royal and Quebec.

Victory again inclined towards the French.

Yet in 1713, under the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht (page 39), Britain secured solid gains. France ceded “all Nova Scotia or Arcadie with its ancient boundaries.” She renounced her claim to Newfoundland. Also she handed over to her rival—as represented by the “Adventurers of England trading into Hudson’s Bay,” the famous Hudson Bay Company which King Charles II incorporated in 1670—“to be possessed in full right for ever, the Bay and Straits of Hudson.”

These were serious losses to France. They had sustained them, however, as a result of Marlborough’s victories in Europe. The French had no reason to be dissatisfied with the progress of events in North America.

Though forced to surrender Nova Scotia, the French retained Cape Breton Island. There they proceeded to erect the fortress of Louisbourg. Thus they still controlled the entrance to the St. Lawrence. In 1718 they built New Orleans at the mouth of the Mississippi. Meantime they hastened the construction of a chain of forts in the region of the Ohio.

2.—GENERAL BRADDOCK’S DEFEAT

The third phase of the Franco-British struggle—“King George’s War,” *alias* the War of the Austrian Succession (page 81)—left the issue in North America still undecided. Though the French got the better of the fighting on land, the British, at sea, again achieved a notable success: in 1744, they captured Louisbourg. To the disgust of the

New Englanders, the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) restored the fortress to France.

In 1747, the French in India had taken Madras (page 146). When peace came to be signed, Britain surrendered Louisbourg in exchange. In 1749, however, to appease New England sentiment, the Government undertook to build a fortress on the east coast of Nova Scotia, over against Louisbourg. This was named Halifax—after Lord Halifax, then head of the Board of Trade and Plantations¹; and bounties were offered to encourage time-expired sailors and soldiers to settle there.

France, meanwhile, had been persistently striving to recover her lost Arcadia. After the founding of Halifax, she redoubled her efforts, and spared neither trouble nor expense to stir up the numerous French population to revolt. Hence the tragedy immortalized in Longfellow's poem, *Evangeline*.

In the autumn of 1755, the British authorities rooted from their homes, and shipped away to the distant Carolinas and Virginia, some 7,000 French Arcadians. This was a ruthless measure. But the circumstances justified it. In 1755 the struggle for empire in North America had entered upon its critical stage.

In 1754, the Virginians, alarmed by the southward advance of the French, sent a force of militia, commanded by a certain George Washington (aged 22), to forestall their design of building a fort where the Alleghany and Monongaleha rivers unite to form the Ohio. Washington came to blows with the French, and was very soundly beaten. The French, therefore, duly established their fort: Fort Duquesne they named it—after the Marquis Duquesne, then governor of Canada.

This set-back induced the Virginians so far to forget

¹ The appointment of a special Secretary of State for the Colonies—or the “Plantations” as they were formerly known—dates only from 1854.

their independence of spirit as to appeal to Britain. The home Government decided to send out General Braddock, with 1,400 British regulars, to help them, and, at the same time, instructed Admiral Boscawen to cruise in American waters to prevent the landing of French reinforcements.

The admiral carried out his instructions to the letter and—by way of “reprisal,” as he said—seized several French ships. What he termed “reprisal,” the French termed “piracy.” Again, therefore, the two nations openly engaged in hostilities, their private quarrel being soon swallowed up in that larger conflict, the Seven Years’ War (page 82).

General Braddock, meanwhile, had arrived at Virginia. Having been authorized to meet force by force, he at once decided to march on Fort Duquesne. Thackeray, in his novel *The Virginians*, has told the story of this venture.

The general, though a brave man and a competent soldier, was accustomed only to European warfare; he knew nothing about backwood fighting. When his Virginian advisers tried to convince him that wagons would be an encumbrance to an army which had to cut its way through primeval forest, he merely waxed wrathful. He insisted on having these things—the full number laid down in the drill books; and, early in June, he and his redcoats—the latter’s knapsacks laden with useless equipment—began to advance.

With infinite toil they struggled forward, at the rate of three miles a day until, on July 9, when almost within sight of their goal, they marched straight into an ambush. Suddenly the forest re-echoed with war-whoops, and a terrific musketry fire was poured into the advancing column. Of the enemy, concealed among boughs, in the brushwood, behind rocks, not one could be seen.

The British regulars were mown down almost to a man. The colonial militia suffered less heavily: they were

more experienced in taking cover. Braddock himself fell mortally wounded; his aide-de-camp, George Washington, escaped only by a miracle. "Who would have thought it?" muttered the dying general, as he was carried along in the retreat. "We shall know better how to deal with them another time."

That time was long deferred. The French then had in America a leader of extraordinary ability, the Marquis Montcalm. For some months after Braddock's defeat, Montcalm carried all before him; and even Boscawen's vigilance could not prevent the landing of reinforcements. Despite the numerical disparity between the French and British settlers in the New World, France's dream of empire in the West seemed likely to materialize.

3.—WOLFE AT QUEBEC

The year 1756 was one of the darkest in the annals of the British Empire. From America, from India (page 148), from all the many fields where the British and French were fighting, there came to London news only of defeat. In June, the French crowned their achievements by capturing Minorca.¹

The island of Minorca (page 39), in the Mediterranean, was one of the prizes won by Britain from the War of the Spanish Succession. The British valued it very highly. In 1756, therefore, when the French attacked the island, public opinion insisted that no effort should be spared in relieving the garrison.

Admiral Byng, to whom the enterprise was entrusted, failed to attain his object. He failed because he had an inadequate force at his disposal. Because he failed, he was tried by court-martial and sentenced to death. At his own request, the admiral was shot in Portsmouth Harbour, on the quarter-deck of his ship—"*Pour encourager les autres*," said Voltaire.

If admirals and generals were responsible for the failure of British arms, statesmen also were responsible. The people demanded a change of government; and, in November, 1756, King George II—much against his

¹ After the war, under the terms of the Peace of Paris (page 191), the British regained possession of Minorca.

will—accepted William Pitt (page 86) as his chief minister.

The people's confidence was not misplaced. Pitt's accession to office had a magical effect on the course of the war. Of the American situation, in particular, Pitt had a very clear comprehension. There were three roads by which the French position could be assailed—up the St. Lawrence, up the Hudson, and up the Ohio. Pitt planned, in 1758, to attack simultaneously along them all, mustering 20,000 British regulars and 30,000 colonial militia for the purpose. The chief command he gave to Abercromby, a general already in the country. As "the active and acting" officers, however, he appointed soldiers who had qualifications other than seniority—Jeffrey Amherst, James Wolfe (aged 31), and Forbes, a Scotsman, who had shown himself successful in dealing with Indians.

While Forbes drove the French from Fort Duquesne, Abercromby was to work up the Hudson, take the French forts of Ticonderoga and Crown Point (see the map on page 91), and so open up a road to Quebec. In the siege of that city, he was to co-operate with Amherst and Wolfe, supported by a fleet under Admiral Boscawen.

The latter force had the most difficult task. Before it could appear in front of Quebec, it had to capture Louisbourg. How the British landed in an Atlantic surf on an open beach, under a murderous fire, and took a fortress deemed impregnable, is a story which, alas, we cannot tell in detail here. Louisbourg fell in July, and its fortifications were demolished. It is now but a fishing village.

Forbes also did all that was required of him.¹ Yet the campaign of 1758 was only partly successful. Abercromby failed to break through in the centre. The

¹ "I have used the freedom of giving your name to Fort Duquesne," he wrote to Pitt in November, 1758, a few days after the French had surrendered, "as I hope it was in some measure the being actuated by your spirit that now makes us masters of the place." So it came about that, on the ruins of the old French fort, grew Pittsburg, now a city of nearly 600,000 inhabitants.

advance on Quebec, therefore, had to be postponed.

Pitt did not lose heart. In 1759 he returned to the attack. This time he gave the chief command to Amherst, and instructed him to conduct operations in the centre. He placed Wolfe in command of the force (8,500 men) which, supported by a fleet of twenty-two ships of the line, under Admiral Saunders, was to sail up the St. Lawrence to Quebec. Wolfe's appointment occasioned bitter murmurings in certain circles. An officer of high rank whose claims had been overlooked was heard to remark in the presence of the king that Wolfe was a madman. "Mad, is he?" said George II. "Then I wish he would bite some of my other generals."

The passage of the fleet up the St. Lawrence was a perilous undertaking. The French had removed all buoys and marks from the river. Admiral Saunders, however, had with him a trusty pilot, one James Cook, formerly a draper's assistant, of whom we shall hear more later (page 124). Cook declared the tideway to be "not a bit worse than the Thames"; and in June he brought the fleet, without mishap, before Quebec. Wolfe then proceeded to entrench his men near the city and to await the arrival of Amherst.

June passed; also July. No tidings came from Amherst. On July 31 Wolfe risked an attack. But the French, led by Montcalm (page 95), were too strong. The attack was repulsed with heavy loss. Again, therefore, the general settled down to wait.

So August passed. Wolfe then saw that he must either risk another assault or withdraw; he could not stay where he was till winter came and closed the St. Lawrence. On August 29 he summoned a council of war. Stricken down by fever, he himself was too ill to attend, but he heartily approved the decision of his subordinates. That decision was to divide the small British army into two parts. One was to remain before

Quebec and to deceive the enemy by a false attack, while the other, under cover of darkness, scaled the heights of Abraham, above the city, and so forced Montcalm to give battle in the open.

The attack was planned for the night of September 12 ; and some two hours before dawn the assault party duly embarked. Wolfe in person led the venture : to the unbounded joy of the soldiers, his malady had sufficiently abated to permit of that.

While the boats stole along the river, the general calmly repeated to the officers around him the stanzas of Gray's *Elegy*, which he had lately received from England. "Gentlemen," he said, when he had finished the recital, "I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec to-morrow."

A few minutes later, as the foremost boat approached the place of landing, the stillness of the night was broken by a sentinel's challenge. "*Qui vive ?*" rang out a voice.

"*La France !*" replied a Scottish captain, who was in charge of the boat.

"*A quel regiment ?*"

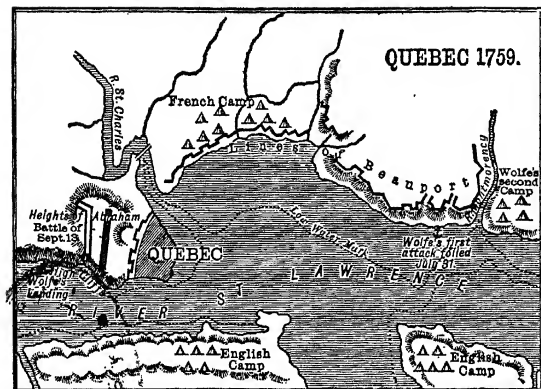
"*De la reine !*" came the ready answer : the Scotsman chanced to know that this corps formed part of the garrison. The sentinel was satisfied ; and the boat passed on, closely followed by the others.

The landing-place was reached in safety. Thence, up a narrow path, the whole party ascended the heights. When the sun rose, the astonished people of Quebec saw the plains of Abraham glittering with arms.

Montcalm at once gave battle. The fighting, while it lasted, was very fierce. But it lasted only till midday. The victory of the British then was complete. At the very moment of his triumph, Wolfe fell, mortally wounded.

"See how they run !" exclaimed an officer who happened to be standing near.

"Who run ?" demanded the dying man.



"The enemy, sir," was the reply; "they give way everywhere."

"God be praised," murmured Wolfe; "I will die in peace."

Almost at the same moment, Montcalm also fell. The surgeons told him he could not recover. "I am glad of it," he said. "I am happy that I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec."

The battlefield is now a public park and, very fittingly, to Montcalm and Wolfe, vanquished and victor, a common monument has been raised. It bears this inscription:

"Their valour gave them a united death,
History has given them a united fame,
Posterity, a united monument."

The taking of the great French stronghold in Canada was a splendid achievement. Its defence by General Murray, who succeeded Wolfe to the command, was even more splendid. During the long winter of 1759-60, Murray had to hold a half-burned, half-breached town against the repeated assaults of a vastly more numerous enemy. In October the British fleet sailed away. Not

until the following May could relief ships break through the loosening pack-ice. By that time, Murray had barely 2,000 men fit for duty.

When the fleet returned, the French sullenly withdrew. Shortly afterwards, Amherst broke through to the St. Lawrence valley. He and Murray then advanced on Montreal. That city offered but a feeble resistance, and, on September 8, 1760—six weeks before the death of King George II—the French in Canada finally capitulated.

The Peace of Paris of 1763 (page 191) confirmed Britain in the possession of what her arms had won. Save for St. Pierre and Miquelon, two islets in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, together with certain fishing rights in Newfoundland—a concession fated to be the cause of much future trouble—nothing was left to France of her empire in North America.

Spain entered into partnership with France during the closing months of the Seven Years' War. From Spain, in 1763, Britain took the peninsula of Florida. The Spaniards, however, were allowed, under the terms of the Peace of Paris, to annex French Louisiana.

CHAPTER VI

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

1.—“THE BOSTON TEA-PARTY”

The Peace of Paris, signed in 1763, added Canada to Britain's empire on the mainland of North America. The Peace of Versailles, signed twenty years later, reduced that empire to Canada only. Volumes have been written to explain the outbreak of the War of American Independence. Edmund Burke, when speaking in 1763 against the policy of annexing Canada, explained it in thirteen words: “If we accept Canada,” he said, “we loosen the ties which bind America to us.”

The War of American Independence, though a fight for freedom on the part of the colonists, was not a fight against oppression. With France a potent factor in the New World, Britain's colonies were content to suffer the restrictions which allegiance to the British Crown involved. But the New England colonies, at any rate—founded by men whose one desire was to get away from Britain in order that they might live under conditions of their own choosing—really were rebel settlements from the outset. When the danger of foreign aggression ceased to threaten them, it was inevitable—as Burke foresaw—that they should seek emancipation. The obstinacy of King George III (1760–1820) and the actions of his wrong-headed ministers precipitated the struggle which begun in 1775. Sooner or later, some such crisis must have occurred.

During the Seven Years' War, the British Government awoke to the fact that the American colonies were rich. In 1765, with a view to making them contribute towards the expenses of a war which had been fought largely on their behalf, Parliament passed a Stamp Act. The Act laid down that American leases and similar documents, to be legally binding, must bear revenue stamps issued by the British Government.

The Stamp Act evoked a storm of indignation. The colonists did not protest against the burden of the tax; they protested against the principle. They were not represented in the British Parliament: therefore, they argued, the British Parliament had no right to tax them.

In the eighteenth century they could hardly have sent representatives to Westminster—if only on account of the difficulty and slowness of transport. They themselves were well aware of this. By affirming, therefore, that "there should be no taxation without representation," they tried to disclaim the whole system of British

colonial administration. Since the beginning of the century, the population of the British colonies had been doubled.¹ As their number, strength, and wealth increased, the colonists more and more bitterly resented the restrictions imposed by the mother country on their trade and industries. In 1765 smouldering discontent was already threatening to burst into flame; the Stamp Act set it alight.

The law allowed the colonists to trade directly only with the mother country: all commodities they imported or exported had to be shipped by way of Britain. Further, in the interests of British manufacturers, they were forbidden to sell cotton, and certain other raw materials, to foreigners. They were also forbidden—again in the interests of British manufacturers—to make, even for their own use, a number of things they were quite capable of producing—steel goods, for example. In America lay an inexhaustible supply of iron ore. The inhabitants of the country, however, were not allowed to avail themselves of it; the law said that they must buy from Britain such steel goods as they required.

In the eighteenth century, all the colonial Powers of Europe imposed similar restrictions on their overseas dependencies. Britain in this respect was more indulgent than France or Holland, much more indulgent than Spain or Portugal. Right down to the time of the outbreak of the War of Independence, the British authorities blandly shut their eyes to the smuggling activities of the sailors of Boston and New York. Despite the law, forbidden industries were extensively carried on.

None the less, the fact remained that the colonists were subject to restrictions. The fact became more and more annoying to them.

Many people in Britain shared the opinion of the Americans in regard to the Stamp Act, and in 1766 Parliament repealed the unpopular law. The British Government, however, refused to renounce its right to tax the colonists. In 1767, having somehow to meet the enormous charges on its war debts, it introduced a Bill requiring them to pay customs duties on glass, paper, tea, and various other imported commodities.

¹ In 1700 the population of the British colonies numbered, roughly, one million. By 1766 it had increased to more than two millions. The population of England and Wales at that time was only slightly over six millions.

This produced another loud outcry. The British Government again bowed before the storm. In 1772 it withdrew the customs duties, with the exception of the duty on tea. King George III insisted on this being retained, as proof of his sovereignty.

The colonists replied by refusing to drink tea. Their abstinence seriously affected the business of British merchants and, in order to get rid of surplus stock, the East India Company offered to pay the duty on behalf of the Americans. The latter remained obdurate. Just as they had protested against the principle of the Stamp Act, so they protested against the principle of the duty on tea. They repudiated the distinction between taxes and duties, and compared the imposition on tea with Charles I's "ship money" (page 11).

From several seaports tea ships were sent away with their cargoes still on board. The people of Boston adopted a more drastic measure. One night in 1773 a number of young men, disguised as Red Indians, raided some ships which were lying at anchor, tied up the crews, and tipped tea to the value of £18,000 into the harbour.

The local authorities declined to take action against the perpetrators of this outrage—"the Boston tea party," as it is known. The British Government decided, therefore, to punish the city, by closing its harbour to commerce. A few weeks later, the Government revoked the charter of Massachusetts and placed the colony under military rule.

King George III and his ministers hoped in this way—by making an example of Massachusetts—to curb rebellious movements elsewhere. Their policy had the opposite effect. The coercion of Massachusetts served only to rouse widespread apprehension. In 1774 "the thirteen colonies," hitherto hopelessly disunited, agreed to send delegates to Philadelphia (the capital of Pennsylvania) to concert common measures for defence against arbitrary government.

The Congress of Philadelphia decided³ to lay an embargo on trade: commercial relations between the colonies and the mother country, it ordained, must cease altogether, pending the redress of grievances. The British Government accepted this challenge. In 1774 the transhipment of troops across the Atlantic began.

Meanwhile, the legislative assembly of Massachusetts, debarred from sitting at Boston, had migrated to Concord, a little town some twenty miles distant. Foreseeing that an attempt would soon be made to dissolve their meetings by force, the members called out the local militia to protect them, and authorized the collection of munitions of war.

In April, 1775, the governor of Massachusetts, General Gage, sent 800 men from Boston to seize and destroy these stores. After a skirmish with the colonial militia at Lexington—midway between Boston and Concord—the royal troops accomplished their mission. As they marched back, however, the whole country-side turned out against them. Every tree, every fence, every ditch sheltered a marksman; and Gage's men had to run a gauntlet of murderous fire. More than two hundred were killed.

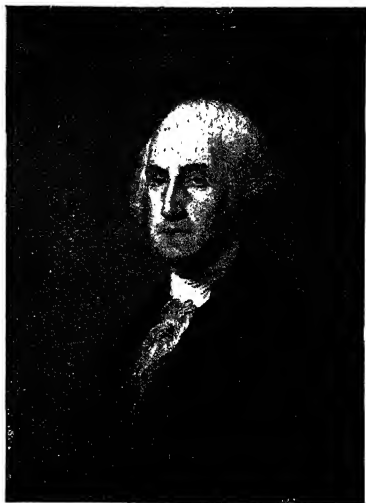
2.—THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

In 1775, "redress of grievances" was still the cry of the discontented Americans; the word "independence" had scarcely been breathed. None the less, the Lexington incident served to provoke a general war. The Congress at Philadelphia at once constituted itself the supreme authority in the colonies, and appointed George Washington (pages 93 and 95) to the command of its forces.

George Washington was born at Bridge's Creek, in Virginia, in the year 1732. He belonged to an English

family which had been long settled in the colony. His great-grandfather, a native of Northamptonshire, emigrated thither in 1657.

While France and Britain were contending for empire in America, Washington gave ample proof of his military talent. But in 1758, some twelve months before the



GEORGE WASHINGTON (1732-99)

(The original painting by G. Stuart is now in the Boston Art Gallery.)

fall of Quebec, he abandoned the profession of arms, and set up as a planter at Mount Vernon, a Virginian estate which he had lately inherited. For nineteen years he devoted himself entirely to peaceful pursuits. In 1775, however, the delegates at Philadelphia instinctively turned to him; at that time there were few trained soldiers among the American colonists.

The Congress could not have made a wiser choice. Washington, indeed—"the man first in peace, first in war, and first in the hearts of his fellow-countrymen"—is now universally acknowledged to have been the greatest leader a popular movement ever has found.

Before Washington arrived at the seat of hostilities in Massachusetts, the first important battle of the war had been fought. Disconcerted by his experience at Lexington, Gage for some weeks lay inactive. The elated New Englanders, meanwhile, organized their forces, and seized Bunker's Hill, a height which dominated his camp at Boston. This roused Gage from his apathy. On June 17 he advanced to dislodge them.

After a stiff fight, the British troops gained their objective. But in toiling up the slippery hill under a deadly fire—each man carrying on his back a pack weighing 125 lb.—they suffered very heavy losses. The general, therefore, instead of following up his victory, again retired to his camp.

A few days later, Washington took command of the beaten colonists—"a mixed multitude of people," he wrote, "with very little discipline, order or government." This rabble he quickly fashioned into something resembling an army. Then he proceeded to lay siege to Boston and, at last, in March, 1776, forced the British to evacuate the city. The garrison was withdrawn by sea to Halifax, in Nova Scotia.

While Washington's guns were bombarding Boston, the Congress at Philadelphia still strove to effect a peaceful settlement. In July, 1775, it drew up and forwarded to London a document, known as "the Olive Branch Petition," respectful and conciliatory in tone, urging the king to issue a charter which would accord to the colonies the liberties they claimed.

King George III refused to listen to reason. He instructed his ministers to return the petition unanswered.

He could not treat, he said, with a body which had no legal existence.

In October, determined at all cost to crush his American subjects, or "the insurgents" as he persisted in calling them, the king sent out General Howe—a brother of the famous admiral (page 114)—to supersede the irresolute Gage. At the same time, he urged the Government to hasten forward the equipment of a powerful expeditionary force.

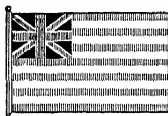
This rendered further negotiations useless. Throughout the winter feverish preparations for war were made on both sides of the Atlantic.

In the summer of 1776, the first contingent of British reinforcements, 20,000 strong, landed on Long Island, in the state of New York. Many of these troops were Germans, enlisted from the king's Hanoverian territories. The British regular army at that time numbered fewer than 50,000 men, and they were scattered as garrisons all over the world. To deal with the American rebellion, new regiments had to be raised. But the employment of foreigners to fight against men of British race was a fatal mistake on the part of the Government. It severed the last tie which bound the colonies to the mother country.

On July 4, 1776, shortly after the landing of the first German troops, the delegates assembled at Philadelphia formally renounced their allegiance to the British Crown, and proclaimed the thirteen colonies to be an independent federal republic. "*We*," they affirmed in this memorable Declaration of Independence, "*the representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States.*"

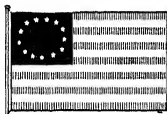
THE STORY OF THE "STARS AND STRIPES"

When the Congress at Philadelphia constituted itself the supreme authority in the British North American colonies (1775), a flag was designed under which the colonists could fight—should fighting become necessary. This flag, the "Grand Union," comprised thirteen stripes, alternately red and white—one stripe for each colony—with the Union Jack in the upper left-hand quarter.

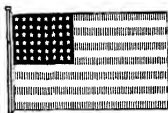
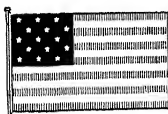


Red
—White

In 1777, the Union Jack was replaced by thirteen five-pointed stars—one star for each state—arranged in a circle on a blue background. The Americans chose stars and stripes for their emblems as a compliment to George Washington. The arms of Washington's English ancestors were made up of stars and stripes. The Washington arms may be seen on a tombstone, dated 1616, at Great Brington Church near Northampton.



In 1795, the stars were arranged in rows, instead of in a circle, and the number was increased from thirteen to fifteen. This was owing to the admission of two new states to the Union—Vermont (1791) and Kentucky (1792). In 1818, as a result of the admission of five more states—Tennessee (1796), Ohio (1803), Louisiana (1812), Indiana (1816), and Illinois (1818)—the number was increased to twenty. Since then a new star has been added for each new state admitted. To-day there are forty-eight states in the Union and forty-eight stars on the flag. The thirteen stripes, however, remain unchanged—in honour of the original thirteen colonies.



It may be noted that in the flag of Hawaii, a group of islands in the Pacific, annexed by the U.S.A. in 1898, the Union Jack appears in the upper left-hand corner. The Crosses of St. George, St. Andrew and St. Patrick, therefore, fly not only over the vast British Empire, but over one foreign land as well.

3.—A FIGHT FOR FREEDOM

The progress of the American revolution was watched by France with lively interest. France rejoiced to see her old enemy, Britain, involved in difficulties. The delegates at Philadelphia, therefore, when they proclaimed the United States an independent republic, believed that they could count on her active support; and straightway they sent to Versailles one of their leading spirits, Benjamin Franklin, to negotiate a treaty of alliance.

Franklin was received at the French Court with every mark of favour. But he failed to secure a definite pledge. The outcome of the Seven Years' War had been disastrous for France; the rulers of that country were not disposed to risk another trial of strength with Britain unless they had a reasonable assurance of success. Could the rebellious colonists maintain their resistance? The French King, Louis XVI (page 175), decided to wait until time had answered that question.

The course of events justified his caution. In September, 1776, General Howe, having scattered Washington's ill-disciplined army (battle of Brooklyn), established himself at New York. During the next few weeks he gained a number of victories over the colonial forces; and it seemed, for a time, that the rebellion would soon be crushed. Washington had all he could do to keep together enough men to give even an appearance of opposition.

When winter came, Howe's troubles began. In order to hold his conquests, the British general had to break up his army and scatter garrisons over the country. The presence in their midst of these garrisons—composed largely of German troops—was hateful to the Americans. Washington favoured their resentment; and, by sweeping down upon and destroying isolated detachments, he quickly revived the drooping spirits of his countrymen. Recruits again flocked to his standard.

Howe then saw that, if he were to retain his position, he must have more soldiers. His request for reinforcements was immediately granted. In 1777 the British Government sent him several fresh regiments. At the same time, it dispatched General Burgoyne to Canada, with an entirely new army of 8,000 men. Burgoyne was ordered to march from Quebec down the Hudson Valley and so to attack the Americans in rear, while Howe advanced on Philadelphia.

Howe duly carried out the task allotted to him. In September he inflicted a heavy defeat on Washington near Brandywine Creek, in Pennsylvania, and entered Philadelphia. Burgoyne's venture had a very different ending.

Having struggled, in the face of almost incredible difficulties, across the inhospitable wilderness which lay between Canada and the States, Burgoyne found himself, on October 16, at Saratoga (see the map on page 119) with an exhausted and half-starved army, hemmed in by a vastly more numerous force of New England militia, under General Gates, who, next to Washington, was the ablest of the American leaders. Unable to advance, unable to retreat, he did the only thing that could have been done in the circumstances: he laid down his arms.

The surrender of General Burgoyne's army at Saratoga (October 17, 1777) was the decisive event in the War of American Independence. When the news reached Europe the French Government received the answer for which it had been waiting. King Louis XVI at once resolved to espouse the American cause; the opportunity had come, it seemed, for his country to take her revenge upon Britain, and to regain the colonial supremacy she had lost.

French intervention changed the whole character of the war. American independence ceased to be the main

issue at stake. The conflict widened out into a renewal of that struggle for the empire of the seas which had been engaging Britain and her chief rival in Europe since 1688. In 1778 the omens were all in favour of France.

Britain had then to contend not only with a jealous and powerful neighbour, but with her own children as well—on each side of the Atlantic, for in Ireland she was threatened with a rebellion as serious as that in America. Grave trouble, moreover, as we shall see later (page 153), was brewing in India. In 1779—to make matters worse—Spain, anxious to recover Gibraltar and Minorca (page 95), entered the war on the side of France and America. In 1780 Holland joined the league against Britain. In that same year, Denmark, Russia, and Sweden formed an “Armed Neutrality”; and the attitude of those Powers promised at any moment to become actively hostile.

Britain had not a single ally on whom she could lean. Prussia, her only possible friend, bluntly rejected her overtures. Frederick the Great had not forgotten her desertion of him in 1761 (page 86); in 1778 he refused to move a finger to help her. Britain, therefore, with the greater part of her army deeply committed in America, 3,000 miles distant, lay in immediate danger of invasion. She had only her “wooden walls” to protect her, and those walls were in anything but good repair. Since the outbreak of the American war, the Government, engrossed in the equipping of armies, had given little thought to the navy.

In 1778 it was strongly urged in Parliament that the independence of the United States should be recognized, so that Britain might be free to concentrate her strength upon France. The Government refused to entertain the proposal; and the king would not even allow his ministers to seek a reconciliation with America. Magnificently, if foolishly, defiant, George III bravely stood forth to face the whole world in arms. The fate of Britain and her empire trembled in the balance.

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Only in regard to Ireland would the king yield an inch. The Irish, crushed by King William III (page 33), bore their grievances in silence until 1776. The example of the American colonists then stirred them to action. They immediately began to agitate for legislative independence. In 1782—lest they should go the way of the American colonists—this was granted to them; and for eighteen years, until the passing of the Act of Union in 1800¹ (page 39), the Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland were completely separated, save in that they had the same sovereign for their head.

At first, the French contented themselves with supplying money and munitions to the Americans. In 1778, however, they sent a fleet to operate in American waters. At the same time, they began to ship soldiers across the Atlantic. These trained reinforcements were an invaluable addition to Washington's army. The American leader soon compelled Howe not only to evacuate Philadelphia, but to relinquish most of his other conquests. At the end of the year the city of New York, indeed, alone remained in British hands.

The authorities in London then decided to transfer the bulk of the royal troops to the south. The attachment of Georgia and the Carolinas to the cause of independence was known to be half-hearted. If those colonies were occupied, it was believed that a part, at any rate, of Britain's inheritance in America could be saved.

Lord Cornwallis was entrusted with the invasion of the south, and the campaign which he conducted in 1779 fully justified the hopes of its authors. Georgia and South Carolina offered little resistance. In 1780, Cornwallis overran North Carolina as well. He then advanced into Virginia. Before undertaking the conquest of that colony, however, he deemed it expedient to rest and refit

¹ In 1920 the Act of Union was annulled. Ireland was then divided into two self-governing parts—Northern Ireland, or Ulster, and Southern Ireland. In 1922 Southern Ireland, as the Irish Free State, acquired "dominion status"—that is, it was constituted, like Canada, Australia, and South Africa, "a co-equal member of the Community of Nations forming the British Commonwealth of Nations."

his army. With this object in view, he made his way to Yorktown, a small seaport standing on a narrow peninsula which juts out into Chesapeake Bay. There he had arranged for a fleet from New York to meet him.

But in 1780 Britain lost the command of the sea ; and Cornwallis, when he arrived at Yorktown, found French, not British, ships awaiting him. He tried to turn back. Washington, however, with 16,000 men, including 7,000 French veterans, had seized the neck of the peninsula between Yorktown and the mainland of Virginia. Thus the British were fairly caught in a trap. Escape was impossible. On October 19, having expended his last round of ammunition in a desperate attempt to fight his way out, Cornwallis surrendered.

The conditions of the capitulation required that the British army should march out of Yorktown with bands playing. The bandmaster showed his sense of the fitness of things by selecting an air entitled, "The World's Turned Upside Down."

4.—UNDER PRESIDENT WASHINGTON

In 1781, the British world, at any rate, was turned upside down. Britain, it seemed, must succumb under the disasters which befell her.

On October 19, when Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown, she lost her last hope of retaining the American colonies. From other parts of the Empire came news equally disquieting. Islands in the West Indies were falling one after another to the French, the Dutch, and the Spaniards ; at the end of the year Jamaica and Barbados alone remained in British possession, and the safety of these was in danger. In India, the French and their native allies were everywhere active. The Irish situation day by day became more and more menacing.

Then, in February, 1782, the Spaniards captured Minorca. And an even worse misfortune than that appeared to be imminent. Gibraltar had been closely invested

since 1779 ; the fall of the fortress, it was generally believed, could not be much longer deferred.

That Britain escaped disaster was due largely to the stubbornness and skill of three great leaders—Admirals Rodney and Hood, and General George Eliott (afterwards Lord Heathfield).

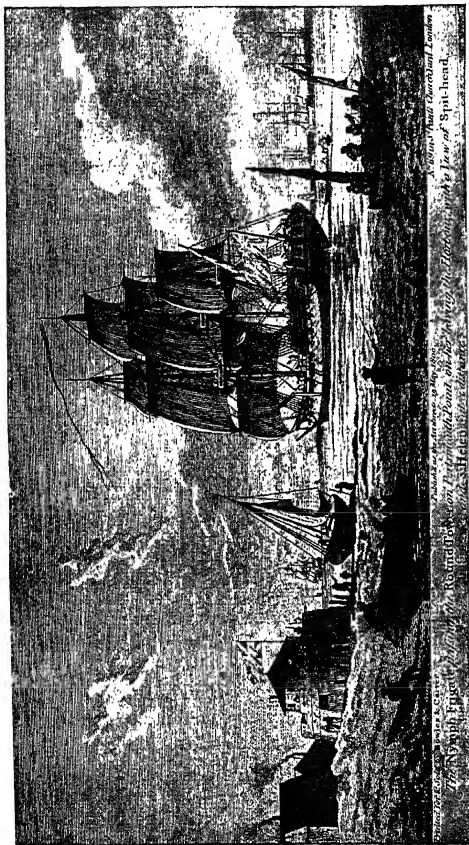
On April 19, 1782, in the West Indies, midway between Dominica and the Isle of Saints, Rodney and Hood gained a decisive victory—the Battle of the Saints, as it is known—over the main French fleet. This victory not only saved Jamaica, but made Britain again queen of the ocean. General Eliott, meanwhile, in the face of overwhelming odds, gallantly kept the flag flying above the Rock of Gibraltar.

From July, 1779, to January, 1783, the British garrison at Gibraltar, often without food and suffering terribly from scurvy, defied the allied might of France and Spain. Throughout these years the enemy never relaxed their investment of the Rock ; and the bombardment was steadily maintained. In the spring of 1781, no fewer than 50,000 shot and 20,000 shell were fired into the fortress.

The defence of Gibraltar became the wonder of the world. At length, determined somehow to reduce the garrison to submission, the kings of France and Spain offered for public competition prizes for the best plans of attack. The plan finally adopted, a grand assault from land and sea, was attempted in September, 1782.

To carry out the preliminary bombardment, forty-seven ships of the line, a large number of frigates, and ten floating batteries were anchored within 1,200 yards of the face of the Rock ; and from five hundred guns the allies maintained for a week an incessant and terrific fire. The garrison could reply from only ninety-six pieces. But they fired red-hot shot. In the end the enemy were heavily discomfited. A few days later a British fleet, under Admiral Howe (page 107), brought food and supplies to the beleaguered garrison. Gibraltar then ceased to be in danger, though the siege was not finally raised until January, 1783.

Britain regained her supremacy at sea too late for the American colonies to be saved for the empire. Towards the end of 1782, even King George III and his ministers recognized this fact and, bowing to the inevitable, made overtures to the Americans, offering, as a basis of peace, to acknowledge their independence. The Americans, almost bankrupt and heartily weary of the war, accepted



The ship shown in the print reproduced here is typical of the frigates employed in the British Navy during the later years of the eighteenth century. Frigates were fast-sailing vessels, of from 600 to 800 tons burden, designed for cruising or scouting purposes. The armament varied according to the size of the ship. Some frigates carried thirty-two guns, some as many as fifty—all on a single deck.

the offer with alacrity, and in April, 1783, a preliminary treaty was signed.

France, Holland and Spain thus found themselves committed to a war which was no longer going well for them. In the circumstances, they also consented to treat; and in September a general peace was concluded at Versailles.

Britain, by the treaty, secured terms more favourable than anyone could have anticipated in the black months of 1781 and 1782. Though she lost her American colonies, though she surrendered Florida (page 100) and Minorca to Spain, and though she made sundry concessions to France, she recovered practically all the territories which had been taken from her during the war by her European enemies. The latter did not attain their object of humbling her to the dust. Britain remained the leading maritime Power.

As soon as the fighting had been brought to an end, George Washington resigned his command of the army, and went back to Mount Vernon (page 105). But he was not allowed to stay in retirement for long. His countrymen soon recalled him to the head of affairs. He had given them independence; now they required that he should make them a nation.

• As their leader in peace, he had a more difficult task to perform than as their leader in war. While battling for independence, the Americans had accepted the ill-defined authority of the Congress at Philadelphia: having achieved independence, they began at once to question it. Old jealousies between state and state revived; and, for a time, the forces of disintegration seemed likely to dissolve the union. •

Then Washington took the lead. By his wisdom, patience, and statesmanship, he finally forced upon the Americans a system of government—a constitution—which, while leaving each state free to manage its own

local affairs, provided for a central body—with a president, elected by popular vote for a term of four years, at its head—powerful enough to control matters of common necessity. In 1789, this constitution was accepted by all the states; and, although from time to time it has been modified and amended in detail, it remains substantially unchanged to this day.

As their first president, the people unanimously appointed George Washington. In 1793, they chose him again. In 1797, they would have elected him a third time. He refused, however, to accept nomination, and so created a precedent which has been faithfully followed by his successors.

No president of the United States of America has held office for more than two terms.

George Washington died at Mount Vernon in 1799, aged 67. None can claim to be descended from him. The "Father of his Country" never became the father of a family.

That no one state in the union might rank higher than any other, Washington, while president, secured some 70 square miles of territory—the District of Columbia—on the left bank of the Potomac River, between Virginia and Maryland, to be held as the common property of the federation, and there laid the foundations of a city which he designed as the national capital.¹ This city, named after himself, is now a place of nearly half a million inhabitants. But it is not a commercial city, not a manufacturing city; Washington, as its founder intended, has only one important industry—the management of the affairs of the United States of America.

In 1783, Britain ceded to those states 828,000 square miles of territory, the whole of the region to the east of

¹ In 1911, the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia followed this example by acquiring a site where a new city, Canberra, has been laid out as the federal capital.

the Mississippi. But only the strip between the Alleghany Mountains and the Atlantic, where lay "the thirteen colonies," had then been occupied and developed. The total area of the original States is about 280,000 square miles, rather less than three times that of the British Isles. To-day there are forty-eight states in the union, with an area of nearly 3,000,000 square miles, and they extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The American people, moreover, who now number more than one hundred millions, possess in addition a very considerable colonial empire.

A part of this wonderful story of development is told by the map on the opposite page. The rest is told in Book IV of this series.

CHAPTER VII

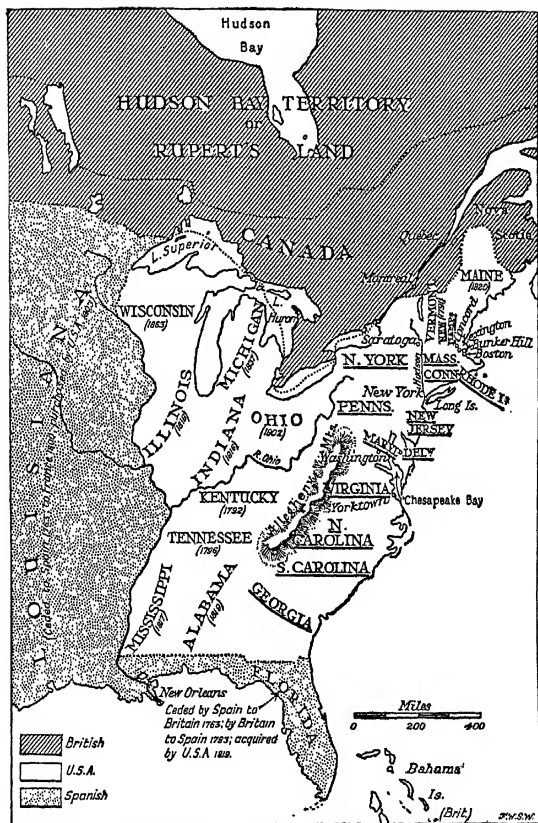
BEYOND THE SEAS

1.—CANADA AFTER 1763

The Treaty of Versailles severed from Britain the oldest and the most extensive of her possessions overseas. It reduced her to the level of a second-rate colonial Power. Yet, paradoxically, it laid the foundations of her imperial greatness.

The opening-up of Canada by the British and—as we shall see presently (page 125)—the occupation of Australia were direct consequences of the American war. That war, moreover, taught the mother country to abstain from interfering unduly in her children's affairs. So it gave her the secret of colonial success.

Canada is a country as large as Europe. Australia is but slightly smaller. The territory ceded in 1783 to the United States of America was, roughly, seven times the size of the British Isles. In the nineteenth century the lost colonies expanded far beyond their original limits: they have grown into a country much richer and more powerful than Canada or Australia. But they, it must be remembered, received a long start in the race of progress. Before the end of the twentieth century, the development of Canada



THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN 1783

The names of "the thirteen colonies," which revolted from Britain in 1766, are underlined. How the rest of the territory, ceded by Britain in 1783, was subsequently carved out into States is also shown by the map. For example, the figures "1802" under the name "Ohio" indicate that Ohio was admitted into the Union as a State in the year 1802.

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and Australia is likely to be hardly less remarkable. In 1783, when the United States became a nation-state, Australia was to all intents and purposes an unknown land. Canada, too, was then largely unknown.

In 1783, Canada stood for a narrow strip of civilization along the banks of the St. Lawrence; between Montreal and Quebec lived some 75,000 Frenchmen. The rest of the country was looked on as inhospitable waste. Had "the thirteen colonies" remained loyal to the British Crown, the French settlements in the St. Lawrence valley must have been absorbed by the more prosperous and populous New England states, and the development of the north-west must have been long delayed. The harsh climate of that region could but have discouraged immigration while there was British soil further to the south awaiting cultivation.

The peopling of Canada by men of British race followed immediately on the American war. In 1783, some 50,000 faithful subjects of King George III—the United Empire Loyalists, as they are known—migrated from the former British to the former French lands in North America, sacrificing all that they had in order still to live under the Union Jack.

Some made homes for themselves within the ill-defined boundaries of the old French Arcadia, where they founded the three "Maritime Provinces" of the modern Dominion of Canada—New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island. Others went farther afield, into the wilderness to the west of Montreal.

The latter and the French settlers in the St. Lawrence valley were administered, for several years, as members of one colony. The conquering race, however, resented being outnumbered and outvoted by the conquered. So, in 1791, with a view to allaying friction, the British Government divided the colony into two parts, each with its own representative institutions—Upper Canada (now the province of Ontario) which was mainly British, and Lower Canada (now the province of Quebec) which was almost entirely French. These two Canadas, with New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island, subsequently formed the nucleus of the Dominion.¹

¹ The Act of Parliament approving the federation of the British

During the War of Independence, the revolting American colonists made repeated efforts to enlist the support of their former rivals in the St. Lawrence valley. The latter stubbornly refused to take up arms, even when their old mother country joined the ranks of Britain's enemies.

Men who had been subjects of the despotic crown of France were not slow in appreciating the benefits of British rule. The French of Canada have often had occasion to quarrel with unfamiliar British methods, but they have never evinced a desire to change their allegiance. To-day there are $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions of *habitants*, or French-speaking people, in Canada—mostly descendants of the settlers conquered in 1760.

At the end of the eighteenth century all the northern and north-western part of Canada was known as Ruperts-land, and belonged to the Hudson Bay Company. This famous corporation was founded, for the purpose of trading in furs, by the gallant Prince Rupert (the royalist hero of the Civil War). In 1670 King Charles II granted it a charter by which the Governors were "made, created, and constituted the absolute lords and proprietors" of the lands which drained into "the Bay and Strait of Hudson"¹; and in 1713, under the terms of the Treaty of Utrecht, France recognized the Company's status.

North American territories was passed in 1867. Some people favoured the suggestion that the federation should be styled a "kingdom." The word "dominion" was finally chosen on account of its imperial associations: Virginia, the first field of British settlement across the seas, had been known as "the old dominion." Newfoundland, the oldest colony now in the Empire, refused—it may be noted—to join the Canadian federation.

¹ The charter laid down that the Governors of the Company were to hold this territory "as of our manor at East Greenwich in our county of Kent . . . yielding and paying yearly to us, our heirs and successors, two elks; and two black beavers whensoever and so often as we, our heirs and successors, shall happen to enter into the said country, territory and regions, hereby granted."

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Prior to 1783, however, the British adventurers did little to develop their property. Subsequently, the opening-up of the north-west proceeded apace.

At length, in 1869, the Company sold its administrative rights to the Canadian Government; and from its lands have now been carved out the provinces of Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan. But the Company, though it no longer exercises sovereign powers, remains a prosperous trading concern, a fine example of imperial and commercial enterprise.

Meanwhile—as far back as 1778—British Columbia was born. In April, 1778, Captain James Cook (pages 97 and 124), while on a voyage of exploration up the Pacific coast of America, anchored in Nootka Sound, Vancouver Island, and so discovered one of the most fertile regions in the world.

At the time, the discovery attracted little notice. The War of American Independence was then raging, and Cook was slain on his homeward journey—stabbed in the back during a scuffle with natives of Hawaii. None the less, within ten years a small trading settlement had been established.

In 1789, a Spanish force appeared on the scene, hauled down the British flag, and destroyed the settlement. This “affair of Nootka Sound” nearly led to war between Britain and Spain. At the eleventh hour, however, the Spanish Government climbed down, made ample redress, and restored Vancouver Island to Britain. Two British warships were sent out to supervise the departure of the Spaniards. Captain Vancouver commanded this force. So the island acquired its name.

Early in the nineteenth century, gold was discovered in the district of the Fraser River, on the mainland opposite to the island. Gold, an unfailing magnet to men, brought many seekers after wealth to those parts. In

1866, Vancouver Island and the Fraser River country were united as a single colony under the name of British Columbia.

2.—THE DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA

Australia first became a field of European settlement in 1788. Yet the existence of that country had been known in Europe for two hundred and fifty years at least. Portuguese navigators explored its coasts early in the sixteenth century.

The Portuguese went to the east and south in quest of gold and spices. Australia was not a spice-producing land; and it seemed to be lacking in mineral wealth. So the men of Portugal did not pursue their investigations far. They were careful, however, to say very little about their discovery.

In 1494, Pope Alexander VI divided the unknown world between the Spaniards and the Portuguese. This partition gave America to Spain; while Portugal acquired Africa, India, and the Malay Archipelago. Australia had yet to be discovered. When discovered, it was found to come largely within the Spanish zone. This explains the silence of the Portuguese: the traders of Lisbon, though they themselves had no use for Australia, did not wish to see Spaniards established on the fringe of their spice preserves.

In the seventeenth century, the Dutch hounded the Portuguese from their settlements in the East. The Dutch, like their rivals, were bent only on trade. They, too, gave but a cursory glance at Australia. Yet one of them nearly discovered its secret. In 1642, Tasman, a navigator in the service of the Netherlands East India Company, visited the island which now bears his name, and New Zealand as well. His reports, however, did not encourage his employers to incur further expense in that direction.

One hundred and twenty-six years later, the British

appeared on the scene. In 1768, the Royal Society¹ persuaded the British Government to send a ship to the eastern Pacific, in order that astronomers might observe the southern heavens. The ship selected was the *Endeavour* (370 tons), and the command was entrusted to Captain James Cook (pages 97 and 122).

James Cook (1728–79) was the son of an agricultural labourer a native of Marton, in Yorkshire. He began his career as a draper's apprentice. This occupation he hated. Finally, he escaped it by running away to sea. In 1755 he contrived to enter the Navy; and, as a marine surveyor, he soon made himself famous. He was just forty years old when, on August 25, 1768, in command of the *Endeavour*, he sailed from Plymouth for the southern seas.

The *Endeavour* was essentially a peaceful ship, bound on a peaceful mission. The consequences of her voyage, none the less, are writ large in history.

Their astronomical work completed, Cook and his companions set forth to explore. There is not space here to tell the story of their adventures. It must suffice to say that the *Endeavour*, having circumnavigated New Zealand, made her way to the east coast of Australia, and at length—the first European vessel to sail in those seas—was brought to anchor, on April 28, 1770, in Botany Bay. Cook so named this inlet because of the enthusiasm which the variety and luxuriance of the vegetation roused in Sir Joseph Banks, an ardent naturalist and a member of the expedition.

Earlier explorers, with the exception of Tasman, had visited only the desolate northern and western parts of Australia. Cook found the fertile south-east; and, when the *Endeavour* returned to Plymouth, on July 12, 1771, he and his companions had a tale of discovery to tell such as had not been heard in Britain since the days of Drake.

In 1776, began the War of American Independence.

¹ The Royal Society, founded to encourage scientific research, was constituted in 1660. Sir Isaac Newton and Sir Christopher Wren were among the early members.

After that war, it was suggested that the great South Land ¹ might provide homes for those loyal colonists who, by reason of their loyalty, had been driven into exile. The British Government considered the proposal. Meanwhile, many loyalists migrated to Canada (page 120). When, finally, the Government decided to adopt the proposal, there were very few exiles still homeless. So Australia continued "to be let."

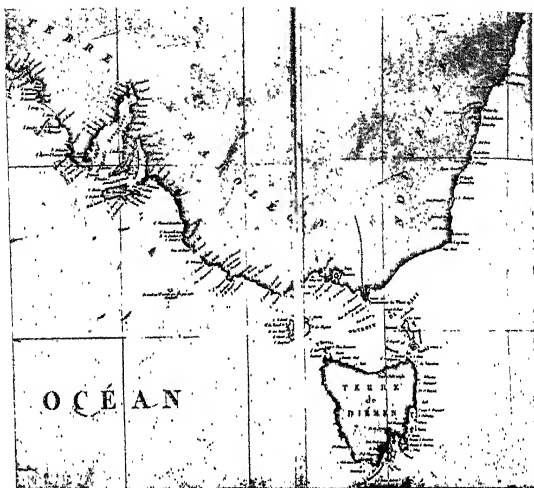
Just then another problem began to perplex the British Government. For many years the American colonies had been used as a dumping-ground for criminals. When the colonies achieved independence, this dumping-ground ceased to be available. Again the authorities bethought them of Australia. So at last a use was found for that country. In 1787, H.M.S. *Sirius* (Captain Arthur Phillip) was sent out with ten transports, carrying 550 men and 230 women prisoners, there to establish a convict settlement.

H.M.S. *Sirius* sailed straight to Botany Bay, and the name of this place was subsequently adopted as a synonym for "transportation." Yet Botany Bay never became the site of a convict settlement. In January, 1788, Captain Phillip landed his charges on its shore, but in that same month he moved them to another harbour farther to the north. There—"at the top of a snug cove," so wrote a member of the party, "near a run of fresh water, which stole silently through a very thick wood . . . then for the first time since the creation disturbed by the rude sound of the labourer's axe"—he founded the city of Sydney. This city stands on the finest harbour in the world, and to-day it has (including its suburbs) a population of some 900,000 souls.

During the next few years, settlements were established on Tasmania, and at several points on the Australian coast.

Melbourne, it may be noted, was founded in 1803. In that year a French expedition appeared in southern Australia. Apparently it was a purely scientific expedition; and, though Britain and France were then at war, the Frenchmen were cordially received at Sydney. As a precautionary measure, however, the British authorities decided to effect an occupation of Port Phillip, which now forms the harbour of Melbourne. The precaution

¹ Cook gave the name of New South Wales to the whole of the vast territory which he annexed, on behalf of King George III, in 1770. It did not come to be known as Australia till about 1800.



PART OF A MAP OF AUSTRALIA

(From Freycinet's Atlas, 1808, showing the "Terre Napoléon!")

prepared by surveyors sent out by Napoleon, who proposed to annex all the southern part of Australia. Napoleon's scheme was brought to naught first by the British occupation of Port Phillip (Melbourne), and finally by Nelson's victory off Cape Trafalgar.

was justified. It subsequently transpired that the expedition to Australia had been planned in preparation for a French occupation of all the southern part of Australia (see the map on this page).

The transportation system is now generally discredited—save, perhaps, in France. But, in that it helped forward the development of undeveloped lands and, at the same time, gave wrongdoers an opportunity of atoning for misdeeds and of making themselves useful citizens in countries remote from old temptations, there was—in the eighteenth century—at least something to be said in its favour. Of the convicts sent to Australia, some were

incurable ruffians who later, as bushrangers, became intolerable pests to society. The majority, however—

True patriots we, for be it understood,
We left our country for our country's good—

proved themselves excellent colonists when they regained their freedom.

After 1788, for half a century and more, hundreds and hundreds of these people were shipped each year from Britain. The transportation system was then abolished, and free men in ever-increasing numbers made Australia their home. Successive waves of these settlers—the fathers of the Australians of to-day—very quickly submerged the old convict element in the population.

White men, when they first went to Australia, had very little native opposition to contend with. The people of the country were savages of the lowest type. In New Zealand the case was different.

Captain Cook proclaimed the sovereignty of King George III in New Zealand in 1769, but, owing to the ferocity of the natives, many years elapsed before this formal act was followed by an effective occupation. The colonization of New Zealand by men from Europe dates only from 1825.

3.—IN THE WEST INDIES

West Indian islands were prizes keenly sought in the eighteenth century by the warring nations of Europe. Later, their political importance declined. Yet their history deserves more than a passing mention; in the waters of the Caribbean Sea were fought many of the hardest battles of the struggle for world empire described in this volume.

The Spaniards, when they went across the seas in the days of Columbus, at once occupied the big islands of the

archipelago—Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, Porto Rico, Trinidad. Eager, however, to possess themselves of a continent, they deemed the smaller islands unworthy of their notice. Of these the men of other nations availed themselves; their sheltered bays afforded safe anchorages to the chartered pirates, English, Dutch, and French, then bent on breaking down Spain's vaunted trade monopoly in the New World.

As the power of Spain weakened and piracy lost its glamour, Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Netherlanders began to look on the islands in the light of business, as places to be exploited. Into Spain the Arabs introduced the sugar-cane; the Spaniards introduced it into Cuba. In the West Indies it thrived mightily. For many years the islands were the sugar shop of the world; and planters, despite political upheavals, waxed richer and richer on the profits of their slave-cultivated canes.

Much of the sugar we consume to-day is beet sugar. In the early years of the nineteenth century, a process was discovered of extracting sugar from beetroot grown in Europe. This and—more particularly—the abolition of the system of negro slavery¹ deprived the West Indies of their former prosperity. In the eighteenth century, land in that region was a source of untold wealth to its possessor. This explains the importance attached to the islands by the peace treaties of the time.

In 1759, while Wolfe was besieging Quebec, a British force captured the French island of Guadeloupe. In 1763, before the signing of the Peace of Paris, responsible British statesmen seriously debated the question of restoring Canada to France, and of keeping Guadeloupe instead. The West Indian island then exported sugar and cotton to the value of £500,000 annually: Canada exported nothing save a few furs. But Wolfe had made Canada

¹ An Act of Parliament passed in 1833, and gradually enforced, abolished slavery in the British world. Other Powers quickly followed Britain's lead.

*The Towne of Puerto del Principe taken & sacked**Part 2. Chap. 5.*

THE SACK OF PUERTO DEL PRINCIPE

This picture, reproduced from Esqucmeling's *The Buccaneers of America*, published in 1684, shows the taking of a town in Cuba by buccaneers. These international freebooters, who in the seventeenth century preyed on Spanish trade in the West Indies, began their career as cattle-hunters on the island of Haiti, and took their name from the grating (*boucan* in the language of the natives) on which they roasted the flesh.

dear to the people of Britain ; sentiment, for once, proved stronger than the desire for immediate gain.¹

It is impossible here to trace the history of individual West Indian islands. Most of them passed from the custody of one Power to another, time after time. Between 1623 and 1783, little St. Kitts—to cite a typical case—changed its allegiance on ten occasions at least.

In 1623, an Englishman, Thomas Warner, established a colony on St. Kitts, believing "it would be a very convenient place for ye growing of tobaccos." In that same year, a party of French colonists also arrived. For some time the British and the French peaceably shared the island. In 1629 their presence was discovered by the Spaniards, and they were forcibly ejected—all save a few Frenchmen who contrived to hide in the woods.

These Frenchmen subsequently seized the whole island, and held it till 1667. In that year the British took it from them. In 1689 the British were again dispossessed. In 1690 they regained the island, but in 1697, by the Treaty of Ryswick (page 32), they were forced to surrender one-half of it to France. In 1713, by the Treaty of Utrecht, they were again awarded the whole—only once more to be dispossessed in 1782.

In the following year, the fate of the island at last was settled. By the Treaty of Versailles, the French finally renounced their claim to it, and it passed for good and all into British hands.

On a modern map of the West Indies may be read, in summary, the story of the varying fortunes of the islands and, incidentally, of that struggle for world dominion which long raged around them. Spain, once *the* imperial Power, supreme in the western hemisphere, cannot now claim a single acre in the Caribbean Sea. Descendants of the African slaves whom Spaniards once oppressed at Cuba have constituted that island an independent republic (1898); Haiti comprises two such republics.

The rest of the archipelago is apportioned among the Americans, the British, the Dutch, and the French. Curaçao and other small islands are Dutch. The French rule Guadeloupe, Martinique, and their many dependencies. The Americans hold Porto Rico (taken from

¹ The exports of Guadeloupe, it may be noted, are now valued at about £750,000 per annum : Canada now exports produce each year to the value of £120,000,000.

Spain in 1898) and the former Danish colonies of St. Croix, St. John, and St. Thomas (acquired by purchase in 1917). Over all the other islands waves the Union Jack. On the neighbouring mainland, moreover, Britain holds the lion's share of Guiana, Raleigh's *El Dorado*; also she holds a large tract of Honduras—a heritage from the famous buccaneers.

Long after the days of Drake—indeed, until the middle of the eighteenth century—pirates, who made it their business to prey on Spanish trade, were to be found everywhere in the West Indies. The buccaneers were a cosmopolitan body of such adventurers.

At first they maintained themselves at Haiti. In 1655, however, they transferred their headquarters to Jamaica—with the tacit approval of the English, who had lately captured that island (Book II, page 147). Established there, they made themselves a very terror to the Spaniards. In 1670, the English king, Charles II, wishing to restore friendly relations with Spain, had them driven out; and their “admiral,” a Welshman named Henry Morgan, was sent to London in chains.

Summoned into the royal presence, the pirate at once won the good graces of the “merry monarch.” Charles II not only granted him a free pardon, but knighted him and sent him back to the West Indies. There, until his death which occurred thirteen years later, Sir Henry Morgan held the post of Governor of Jamaica.

Forced to quit Jamaica, the buccaneers migrated to the Bahamas. Operating from this new base, they proved themselves a nuisance to the traders of other nations as well as to the Spaniards. In 1718, the British Government resolved to suppress them. The task was entrusted to a certain Captain Rogers, something of a buccaneer himself. Rogers carried it out expeditiously and well. This ended the history of the buccaneers.

Ask a Spaniard to pronounce “Willis”: he will say “Belize” or something rather like it. Belize is the capital of British Honduras. The town has grown from a settlement planted there in the seventeenth century, to serve piratical ends, by one Willis, an English buccaneer. Despite repeated efforts by the Spaniards to dislodge them, Englishmen stubbornly retained a hold on Honduras. At last, in 1862, the “settlement,” then a territory larger than Wales, was annexed by the Crown.

CHAPTER VIII

THE DARK CONTINENT

1.—THE SLAVE TRADE

Africa was the first of the new lands which the Age of Discovery brought within the ken of Europe. It was one of the last to be developed. This is a fact which calls for explanation.

During the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, white men penetrated to the farthest corners of America and Asia. They left Africa almost entirely unexplored. A medley of European peoples built forts on the west coast: the Dutch established a settlement at the Cape of Good Hope: the Portuguese established a settlement at Mozambique. Prior to the nineteenth century, however, little or nothing was known of the mass of the continent¹; Africa, to European eyes, was simply a coast-line. Wrote Jonathan Swift, the author of *Gulliver's Travels* (1667-1745):

“Geographers, in Afric maps,
With savage pictures filled their gaps,
And o'er unhabitable downs
Placed elephants for want of towns.”

The slave trade was one of the chief factors which retarded the opening up of Africa. The introduction of sugar planting into the New World (page 128) resulted in an insistent demand for labour. Africa was the nearest possible source of supply. Portuguese merchants, therefore, bethought them of a use for this continent which—in their haste to get to the spice islands and India—they had hitherto despised. By shipping African negroes to

¹ Egypt (“the cradle of civilization”) and the other lands on the north coast were known. Historically, however, these belong to Asia rather than Africa. Bounded on the south by a wide belt of desert, they have always stood apart from the African continent.



A MAP OF AFRICA DRAWN IN 1750

the West, they resolved to supplement the wealth which they drew from the East.

At first they sent slaves to America by way of Portugal. Between 1530 and 1550 some 15,000 were sold annually in the markets of Lisbon. Subsequently the demand increased. Negroes were then shipped direct from Africa, and the conditions under which the trade was conducted became progressively worse. It would be hard to exaggerate the suffering the captives had to endure on the voyage across the Atlantic.

Before long, adventurers from the countries of northern Europe—from Britain and Denmark, France and Holland—made their way to western Africa. The Dutch went there avowedly as slave-traders, eager to wrest from their Portuguese rivals a lucrative monopoly. The others were attracted, in the first instance, by the gold and ivory which Africa had to offer. But evil communications gradually corrupted their good manners. Towards the middle of the seventeenth century they also took to slave-trading.

Sir John Hawkins, as far back as the days of Queen Elizabeth learned that negroes were "very good merchandise," and engaged in several slave-trading ventures—greatly to the enrichment of himself and his queen. Englishmen at that time, however, had little liking for the occupation of trafficking in black men. A hundred years passed before the profits to be earned by slave-trading tempted them to make that business their main interest in Africa. In 1650, a negro could be sold in America for £13; and the demand was unlimited.

In the eighteenth century, the British became the chief slave-trading nation. Between 1679 and 1688 they imported 50,000 African negroes into their American colonies; between 1698 and 1707, they imported 250,000, and began actively to seek the *Assiento*. This, the coveted contract for supplying Spanish America, was held first by the Portuguese, then by the Dutch, and then by the French. In 1713, by the Treaty of Utrecht, Britain acquired it. The British held it till 1750.

So it was that Africa remained the "dark continent." The opening up of territories whose greatest wealth was slaves was the last thing the white men wished for; and

the forts they built on the west coast, instead of serving as bases whence civilization might be borne inland, were expressly designed to keep the interior in that state of savagery on which the slave trade depended—to prevent the intrusion of European influence.

The moral arguments against the slave trade need not be restated here. The trade was an iniquitous business, the ugliest feature in the story of the expansion of Europe. We may remember, however, that white men did not introduce into Africa the traffic in human flesh. They merely adapted to their own requirements a practice they found already in vogue. The institution of slavery is as old as history.

None the less, the employment by Europeans of African slaves to work their American plantations was wholly indefensible. Gradually, during the eighteenth century, the peoples of Europe became conscious of this fact. In Britain, in particular, agitation grew steadily stronger. At length, in the early years of the nineteenth century, the British gave a lead to other nations by abolishing slavery throughout their empire (see the footnote on page 128). The establishment, in 1791, of a colony at Sierra Leone—on the slave-trading coast—where negroes, who had contrived to regain their liberty, might live in safety as free men, under British protection, was a significant indication of this pending reform.

The founding of the colony at Sierra Leone resulted from a memorable decision given in a court of law, in 1772, by Lord Mansfield, one of the most famous of English judges, in the case of a negro slave—James Somersett by name—who had been brought by his master from the West Indies to London. The judge laid down that the slave, since he had set foot on the free soil of England, was automatically made free. "The state of slavery," he asserted, "... is so odious that nothing can be suffered to support it but positive law. Whatever inconveniences, therefore, may follow this decision, I cannot say that the case is allowed or approved by the law of England, and therefore the black must be discharged."

At the time, there were several thousands of negro slaves in the country—employed, mostly, as domestic servants by retired Ameri-

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can planters. In consequence of Lord Mansfield's decision, the majority of them were turned adrift. So a number of philanthropists, including Jonas Hanway, a noted traveller of that day (incidentally, he was a pioneer of the Sunday School movement, and the first Englishman who regularly carried an umbrella in the streets of London), formed a committee with a view to "relieving the poor black."

Eventually, having secured from the native owners a concession of land at Sierra Leone, the committee set to work there to establish a settlement for liberated slaves. The first attempt proved unsuccessful. In 1790, a native chief raided the settlement—Freetown as it had been named—and restored the inhabitants to their former state of slavery.

Undaunted by failure, the promoters of the scheme tried again. In 1791, they formed a company, announcing their object to be "the introduction of civilization into Africa." This they proposed to achieve by establishing "a secure factory at Sierra Leone, with a view to a new trade in produce, chiefly with the interior." The company was incorporated by Act of Parliament; and immediate success crowned the enterprise.

Under the governorship of Zachary Macaulay, the father of Lord Macaulay, the famous historian, Sierra Leone—a colony for black men, but founded under European auspices¹—prospered and grew. Before the end of the century it had a population of more than 15,000 liberated slaves, belonging to a hundred different races. Even to-day in the streets of Freetown, the capital, may be heard a babel of African tongues.

So, at last, the light of Western civilization began to filter into dark places. The founding of the colony of Sierra Leone inaugurated a new era in the history of Africa.

2.—SOUTH AND EAST AFRICA

The history of West Africa, during the period dealt with in this volume, is bound up with that of America. The history of South and East Africa is bound up with that of Asia.

In olden days, mariners had to face dangers and endure

¹ Sierra Leone's neighbour, the now independent negro republic of Liberia (Latin, *liber*, "free"), was founded, it may be noted, in 1822, in somewhat similar circumstances, by the Government of the United States of America.

privations unknown to the sailors of to-day. Those who engaged in long voyages suffered, in particular, from the want of fresh meat and vegetables. Scurvy took a terrible toll of life. This disease, which results from improper feeding, would sometimes reduce a ship's company by more than a half on the voyage between Europe and the East.

In 1608, with a view to fighting scurvy, John Jourdain, a captain in the service of the "Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies," urged his employers to establish in South Africa, on the shore of Table Bay, a farm which might serve as a revictualling depot for the Company's ships. "The country," he wrote, "... would beare any thinge that would be sown or planted in it . . . and in shorte time it might be broght to some civillitie, and within fewe yeares able of it selfe to furnish all shippes refreshinge."

The suggestion was a good one—whatever may be thought of the captain's spelling. The Company, however, took no notice of it.

In 1620, two of the Company's captains, Andrew Shillinge and Humphrey Fitzherbert, again put forward the suggestion. These men did more: they hoisted the English flag at the Cape of Good Hope and, in the presence of the captain and crew of a Dutch ship, took possession of the land, in the name of King James I, "to the boundary of the nearest kingdom." Even this failed to rouse the London merchants to action. The English flag was allowed to flutter unheeded at the Cape until, at length, the Dutch hauled it down.

About 1640, the Netherlands East India Company, quicker than its rivals in recognizing the need for a half-way house between Europe and the East, established a market garden, for the use of its fleets, at St. Helena. But that island, lying in the track of the trade-winds from the south-east, was convenient as a place of call only to vessels homeward bound from the Indies. In 1652,

therefore, the Dutch authorities decided to transfer their colony to Table Bay.

Then—too late—the London merchants became aware of the opportunity which they had long neglected. Subsequently, in 1658, they took over the vacant Dutch allotment. St. Helena, however, was a poor substitute for the Cape.

At about the same time, it may be noted, the French and the Portuguese also established provisioning depots in that quarter—the French at Madagascar, the Portuguese at Mozambique.

To develop their South African colony, the Dutch sent out a number of *boers* or farmers.¹ These farmers were not all Dutchmen. The Netherlands East India Company had extensive possessions overseas. There were not nearly enough people in Holland to provide the requisite number of white settlers. The Company, therefore, by offering liberal inducements, recruited colonists from other European countries, insisting only that those who settled on its territories should adopt Dutch nationality and the Dutch language.

Many of the early settlers at the Cape were Huguenots who had left France after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (page 30). In 1685 more than eight hundred of these unfortunate refugees were given free passages to South Africa and free grants of land when they got there. A number of the well-known Boers of modern times—Joubert, for example, and Cronje (a corruption of Cronier)—show by their names that their ancestors were Frenchmen.

The Huguenots, who made homes for themselves at the Cape, did not emigrate in order to grow vegetables for the benefit of Dutch merchants. They went abroad, as went

¹ The Dutch word *boer* and the English word *boor* are derived from a common source. The term "boor," though commonly applied to a rude or ill-mannered fellow, really denotes a peasant.

the Pilgrim Fathers from England to America, to escape the restraints of civilization. As, therefore, the Dutch settlement at the Cape became an ordered colony, they began to look longingly towards the wild country which lay beyond its confines. Then out into that wild they trekked, in the manner of primitive men, with their wives, their children, and their cattle, electing there to live under their own simple laws and institutions.

Thus South Africa came to be inhabited by two distinct types of white men. While servants of the Dutch company were building for themselves pleasant homes at Cape Town, the trek-Boers, as they are known, steadily left civilization farther and farther behind them. In the nineteenth century (as we shall see in the next volume of this series) the Dutch possessions in South Africa were brought under British rule. The British then found the problem of the trek-Boer a very difficult one to deal with. It is worth noting, therefore, how the problem arose; also that it was not a problem of British creation. By the middle of the eighteenth century it had already begun to perplex the Dutch authorities.

With East Africa the peoples of Europe were concerned hardly at all during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.

Back in the days of Vasco da Gama, the Portuguese very thoroughly explored the east coast. For a time they even supplanted the Arab traders whom they there found predominant. But the Portuguese, engrossed in their affairs in the Indies, did not stay long; East Africa lay remote from their trade routes. By the middle of the seventeenth century, the Arabs had regained their ascendancy.

The Portuguese in the sixteenth century sailed up the East African coast as far as Abyssinia. There they were astonished to discover a Christian kingdom, and in its ruler they imagined they had found Prester John, a legendary Christian prince who, according to a belief widely accepted in mediæval Europe, ruled over a

great empire somewhere in the East. Tradition identified this monarch with St. John, "the disciple whom Jesus loved," and who, it was thought, had escaped death in fulfilment of the words recorded in that disciple's Gospel (see St. John xxi. 22, 23).

The Abyssinians became a Christian people long before the British. They adopted the Christian faith at the beginning of the fourth century—nearly three hundred years before St. Augustine landed in Kent. They are now the only people in Africa who have not been brought directly under European influence. The ruling dynasty of their ancient kingdom claims to be directly descended from Menelek, a son of King Solomon and the Queen of Sheba.

After the departure of the Portuguese, the *imam* (a title borne by some Mohammedan rulers: cf. *caliph*) of Muscat, in Arabia, incorporated in his dominions the coastal regions south of Abyssinia. Not until the Suez Canal was opened in 1869 did Europeans again seriously intrude into East Africa. Meantime, as white men on the west exploited the interior of the continent in order to procure labour for their American plantations, so Arabs on the east exploited it to supply the slave markets of Asia.

At one point on the coast, at Mozambique (page 138), the Portuguese retained a foothold. Mozambique still belongs to Portugal.

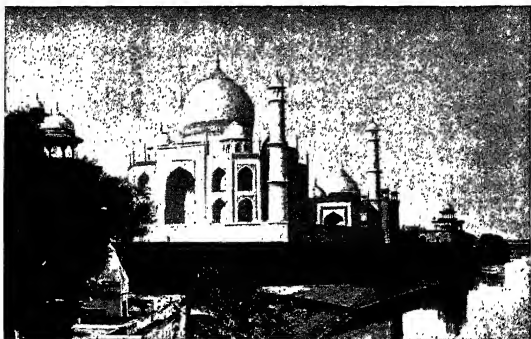
CHAPTER IX

INDIA

1.—THE MOGUL EMPIRE

The civilizations of the ancient world arose, for the most part, in valleys where a rich, alluvial soil enabled men to live easily and well, and where navigable rivers afforded ready means of communication. The earliest civilizations started on the banks of the Nile and in the Tigris-Euphrates basin. The plain watered by the Yangtse and the Hoang-ho, the great rivers of China, was also the cradle of an early civilization. The valley of the Ganges, in India, was that of another.

Some two thousand years before the Christian era, the Hindus—a people related, by speech ¹ at any rate, to the men who in the long, long ago spread over Europe—swept down from northern regions into the Ganges valley. The Hindus had already attained to some degree of culture. When they became settlers in a fertile land, they turned their knowledge to good account, and quickly extended their influence over the Indian peninsula.



THE TAJ MAHAL AT AGRA

in India, is accounted the most beautiful example of Mohammedan art. It was erected between 1629 and 1649 by Shah-Jehan, one of the Mogul emperors, as a memorial of his favourite queen. It has been well described as "a poem in marble."

As craftsmen, the Hindus were famous throughout the ancient world. Phœnicians traded with them three thousand years ago ; the great ladies of imperial Rome eagerly sought ornaments and fabrics of Indian manufacture.

¹ In Sanskrit (the ancient language of the Hindus) and in Greek, Latin, English, and other European tongues, the names of many ordinary things and words expressing many simple implements and actions are substantially the same. This suggests that at some time the ancestors of the men using these languages had a common speech and shared a common home. Sanskrit, though now a dead language, is the basis of a number of modern Indian dialects.

To literature, to philosophy and science the Hindus of old made many notable contributions. Yet these clever people failed to devise efficient machinery of government. Dreamers rather than men of action, they failed even to achieve military renown. There are numerous references to India in the early chapters of history. But they occur mostly in the footnotes. The Hindus did little towards the direct development of the story.

Right down to modern times, their ill-organized country served largely as a hunting-ground for raiders from Central Asia. Not until the sixteenth century of our era was a firm government at last established. India then passed under Mohammedan domination. Between 1500 and 1525, a Tartar warrior, Baber by name, a descendant of Tamerlane the Great, conquered the country and, fixing his capital at Delhi, founded the famous Mogul Empire.

It was just then that Portuguese navigators made their way to the East. With the consent of the emperor at Delhi—the Great Mogul, as he is commonly known—the Portuguese established a number of factories, or depots, on the coast of India, and for a long time enjoyed a complete monopoly of the trade between that country and Europe.

Early in the seventeenth century, English adventurers, the “Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies,” sought to enter into commercial relations with India. The Portuguese resented the presence of these trespassers, and in 1612 attacked an English fleet outside the harbour of Surat (some 160 miles north of Bombay). They were soundly beaten for their pains; and the victors, with the approval of the Great Mogul, proceeded to build a factory.

Meanwhile, the Dutch had gone to the East. To the Portuguese the Dutch proved more dangerous rivals than the English. These enterprising new-comers ruthlessly hunted the old-established traders from their

factories in India.¹ The Dutch also drove the Portuguese from Ceylon, and seized most of their settlements in the Malay Archipelago.

There the English fared almost as badly at their hands. In India, however, the London merchants steadily strengthened their position. Before the end of the century, they had planted factories all round the coast, and had acquired important territorial possessions—notably, the sites of the present cities of Bombay, Calcutta, and Madras.

In 1639, Francis Day, one of the Company's officers, purchased, on behalf of his employers, a plot of land on which was built Fort St. George—afterwards the city of Madras. This was the first British possession in India.

The London directors regarded Day's action with disfavour; they had no wish to incur the responsibility involved in the ownership of land. In the Company's "Black Book," under the date of 1641, appears the following entry: "Francis Day blamed to be the first projector of fort St. George . . . paid for out of the Company's cash."

But Day, as his employers subsequently learned, did only what had to be done. Men who seek to trade on an extensive scale in the East must hold land. The Western Powers when, in the nineteenth century, they tried to penetrate the exclusiveness of China were confronted with the same necessity. But the British, in taking possession of Hong-Kong, had no thought of conquering China; their sole object was to promote trading interests.

So it was in India.

The London merchants in the seventeenth century had no thought of conquering India. Trade, the earning of dividends, was their one object; they acquired land solely in order that they might have defensible trading depots. Not till the eighteenth century did they adopt a policy of territorial aggression. It was then forced upon them—as a result of the break-up of the Mogul Empire, and by the action of the French.

In 1664, King Louis XIV brought into being a French East India Company. This company worked mostly on

¹ By the middle of the seventeenth century, Goa, Daman and Diu (all on the west coast) were the only Portuguese factories in India. These still belong to Portugal.

the east coast of India. Its principal factory was at Pondicherry, some ninety miles south of Madras.¹ The French bought the site from the Great Mogul in 1674.

Though ostensibly a trading concern, the French company was really a creature of the state. Annexation, the building up of an empire, was the avowed purpose of its founder. In 1707, the French were given an opportunity of pursuing this design.

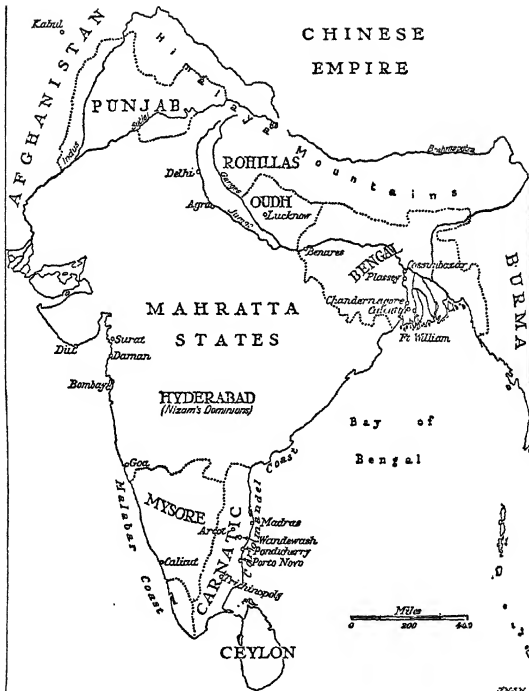
In 1707, on the death of the Emperor Aurungzebe, the Mogul Empire fell to pieces. The various *nabobs*, or imperial viceroys, with few exceptions, renounced their allegiance to the emperor at Delhi² and set themselves up as sovereign princes of the provinces in their control. Meanwhile, in the western and central parts of the country, Hindu tribes, known as the Mahrattas, formed several independent communities. India, in fact, relapsed into its former disordered state.

The French availed themselves of this to the full, displaying the same skill which they showed in Canada (page 90) when dealing with native races.

At the time, a very remarkable man, Joseph Dupleix, held the post of governor at Pondicherry. Dupleix saw that a *sepoy* army—an army of native soldiers, officered by Europeans and trained in accordance with European methods—could be made a decisive factor in Indian politics. He set to work to raise such an army and, by employing it in native wars, quickly gained for France a predominating influence in Hyderabad and the Carnatic (see the map on page 145). Within a few years he had virtually established a French empire in southern India. One thing only remained to be done—to drive the British from their factories on the coast. . . .

¹ Pondicherry still belongs to France. The French colony attached to it has an area of 115 square miles.

² Emperors of the Mogul dynasty continued to reign at Delhi, in name, till 1857. The last of the line, convicted of complicity in the Indian Mutiny, was then deprived of his office by the British authorities, and deported from India. Twenty years later, Queen Victoria assumed the title of "Empress of India."



INDIA IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

2.—ROBERT CLIVE

In 1742, Britain and France became involved, on opposite sides, in the War of the Austrian Succession (page 81). This afforded a pretext for the British and French companies in India openly to engage in hostilities.

In India, during that war, the British fared badly.

Dupleix's sepoy army proved much too strong for them; and, in 1747, by capturing Madras, the French swept their rivals from the Carnatic. But the War of the Austrian Succession was fought also in America. There the British fared better. In 1744 the New England colonists took from the French the important fortress of Louisbourg (page 92). So they saved the British cause in southern India. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, signed in 1748, provided that the French should restore Madras to the British in exchange for Louisbourg.

Even so, the British hold on southern India was precarious in the extreme. In the adoption of strong measures lay the London merchants' only hope of maintaining their position.

Circumstances provided them with both the occasion and the man. The man was Robert Clive. A political upheaval in the Carnatic served as the occasion.

Born in 1725, Clive was the son of a lawyer of Market Drayton, in Shropshire. When seventeen years of age, he accepted a writer-ship (i.e. a clerkship) in the service of the East India Company. This he did to escape the career which had been chosen for him—a life of drudgery in his father's office. He arrived at Madras, in 1744, to find himself condemned to a worse form of drudgery.

Appalled at the prospect of office routine under a tropical sun, at a wretched salary, he tried to take his life. Twice he put a pistol to his head, and pulled the trigger. Each time the weapon misfired.

Just then a friend entered the room. Clive handed him the pistol, and asked him to let it off. The charge exploded at once. "I feel I am reserved for something," Clive quietly remarked; "I have twice snapped that pistol at my head."

Shortly after this, there came to him the opportunity of discarding the pen which he hated. When the French attacked Madras, the young writer was taken prisoner, and carried off to Pondicherry. Disguised as a native, however, he managed to escape, and, making his way to the nearest British camp, was rewarded for his daring by being given an ensign's¹ commission in the sepoy army his employers were then raising.

¹ Ensigns were formerly officers holding the lowest commissioned rank in a British infantry regiment. In 1871 the term "ensign" was replaced by "second-lieutenant." Ensigns were so called because it was one of their duties to carry the colours, or ensign, of the regiment.

In 1751, Dupleix decided, for reasons of his own, to seat a certain Chunda Sahib on the throne of the Carnatic, to the exclusion of the rightful nabob, Mohammed Ali. This revolution he easily effected. Mohammed Ali, however, eluded capture, and from Trichinopoly, his last remaining stronghold, sent an urgent appeal for help to the British at Madras.

The governor at Madras would gladly have responded. But he felt he had not enough troops at his disposal to justify a challenge to Dupleix. Then Clive came forward. If the governor would entrust him with but two hundred European troops and a like number of sepoy, he undertook to defeat the Frenchman's designs. Desperate cases call for desperate remedies. The governor consented to the proposal.

Straightway, Clive marched on Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic. A surprise attack yielded the place into his hands, and for fifty days he held it against repeated assaults. Then, with his little band of followers reinforced by some sepoy sent from Madras, he boldly advanced to the relief of Trichinopoly. There he won an astonishing victory. Its completeness may be gauged by the fact that Dupleix, the greatest Frenchman who ever went to India, was recalled to Europe in disgrace.

Thus Mohammed Ali regained the throne of the Carnatic. But he and his successors ruled virtually as British pensioners. Clive reversed the situation in southern India. In place of French influence, he made British influence supreme in that quarter.

In 1753, Clive went to England. In London he found himself the hero of the hour. Honours were showered on him. But this "youth of twenty-seven years," whom Pitt acclaimed as a "heaven-born general," was still far from the summit of his fame.

In 1756, he returned to Madras. His arrival there was opportune. The Seven Years' War had just begun; and

—as we have seen already (page 83)—with the outbreak of that conflict, the long struggle for empire between Britain and France entered upon its critical stage.

At first, fortune favoured the French. Montcalm's sweeping victories in North America and the loss of Minorca (page 95) were heavy blows to British prestige. In India an even worse calamity befell the British. In June, 1756, Suraj-ud-Dowlah, the nabob of Bengal, urged on by French agents, captured Calcutta, following up his victory by the hideous crime of "the Black Hole."

In Madras the servants of the East India Company had learned, from constant strife with the French, to be soldiers as well as traders. In Bengal, in 1756, they were still merely traders; and, at the approach of the nabob's army, the majority fled from Calcutta in shameless panic. The brave few who remained were soon overpowered, and thrust by the nabob into a small dungeon well deserving its name, the Black Hole of Calcutta.¹

The room, 18 feet long and 14 feet wide, was ventilated only by two narrow gratings. In June—the hottest season of the Bengal year—such a place would have been a cruel prison-house for even a single European. In it Suraj-ud-Dowlah forced a hundred and forty-six persons, several of them women, to pass the whole of a long, stifling night. When morning came only twenty-three were still alive.

The news was brought to Madras in August. The authorities there at once decided to send a punitive expedition to Bengal, and entrusted the command to Robert Clive. Having re-established the British settlement at Calcutta, and overthrown the French factories in the vicinity, Clive set about to accomplish his main purpose—to wreak vengeance on Suraj-ud-Dowlah; and on June 23, 1757, at Plassey, some eighty miles north-west of Calcutta, the British and Bengal armies met in battle.

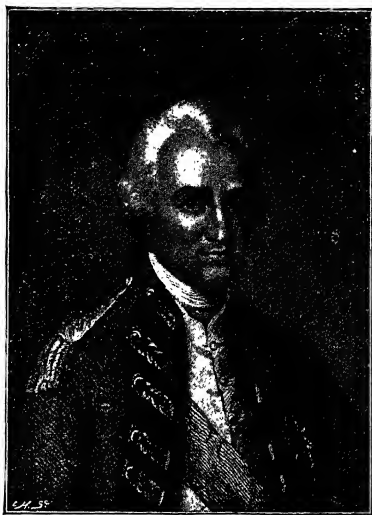
The troops under Clive's command numbered 3,000—2,000 sepoys and 1,000 Europeans.² The nabob had

¹ The present Post Office at Calcutta stands on the site.

² The Europeans were mostly men of the 39th (1st Dorsetshire) Regiment. This is the only regiment in the British Army which is entitled to bear on its colours the name "Plassey." Also, it boasts the proud motto, *Primus in Indis*.

with him 36,000 infantry and 15,000 cavalry, together with a formidable artillery and a numerous French contingent.

That the British leader should have dared to attack this mighty host may seem incredible. Suraj-ud-Dowlah,



ROBERT CLIVE (1725-74)

(From the portrait by N. Dance, R.A., in the National Portrait Gallery, London.)

Clive was only forty-nine years of age when, in a fit of depression and physical suffering, he committed suicide.

however, had but a crude knowledge of the art of war as understood in Europe, and his troops had received very little military training.

Clive knew this. He relied on skill and discipline to give him victory. His confidence was not misplaced. Rarely has an army been more completely vanquished

than was the nabob's. The French contingent alone offered any serious resistance.

The battle of Plassey cost Suraj-ud-Dowlah his throne. In place of that tyrant, Clive set up a rival prince, Mir Jaffar, as nabob of Bengal. But Mir Jaffar ruled only in name. Clive's victory conferred the real sovereignty in north-eastern India upon the British Crown, as represented by a company of London merchants.

While Clive was engaged in Bengal, the French made a desperate attempt to recover lost ground in the south. Their efforts met with no success. In January, 1760, at the battle of Wandewash, Sir Eyre Coote utterly broke their power, and by 1763 they had lost practically all their possessions in India.

The Treaty of Paris (page 191) restored to them their factories. But it provided that those factories should be used henceforth as trading depots only; the French were forbidden to maintain military establishments. Thus Britain emerged from the Seven Years' War not only mistress of Canada but—thanks to Clive—without a European rival in India.

Clive, on his return to England in 1760, was created an Irish peer. Enemies in high places prevented the grant of higher honour.¹ His enemies persistently intrigued against him till 1767. Then their attacks at last were defeated. In that year the House of Commons passed a resolution that "Robert Lord Clive has rendered great and meritorious services to his country."

8.—WARREN HASTINGS

Clive returned to England in 1760 possessed of an enormous fortune. This he had acquired by methods which will hardly bear examination. For example, he

¹ As an Irish peer he was not entitled to a seat in the House of Lords.

extorted from Mir Jaffar, before installing him on the throne of Bengal, a "gift" of £200,000.

At that time, the East India Company's officials, with very few exceptions, were all amassing riches in such ways—by "shaking the pagoda tree" as they politely termed the levying of blackmail on wealthy natives. Wrote Horace Walpole (1717–97)¹: "We are Spaniards in our lust for gold, and Dutch in our delicacy of obtaining it."

. For so long as the British in India were merely servants of a trading company, no very serious harm, perhaps, was done. When the Company accepted responsibility for the administration of vast territories, the case was altered. Clive was one of the first to recognize this.

Clive returned to England in 1760 believing that he had seen the last of India. He purposed to spend the remainder of his life in leisured ease at home. But in 1765, obedient to the call of duty, he accepted the governorship of Bengal, and again sailed for the East, bent on carrying out much-needed reforms.

He held the post of governor for only two years. Ill-health then forced him to retire. In those two years, however, he accomplished a notable work. Hitherto the Company's servants had been very poorly paid. Clive substantially increased their salaries. Having thus made it possible for them to live in reasonable comfort on their earnings, he ordained that corrupt practices must cease and, under pain of heavy penalties, forbade British officials in any circumstances to accept "gifts" from Indians.

This wise reform was very unpopular among his subordinates. Nor was it viewed with favour by the London directors, for the payment of bigger salaries meant an appreciable addition to the working expenses of the Com-

¹ Horace Walpole was a son of Sir Robert Walpole, the famous statesman. His *Memoirs* are a valuable source of information concerning the inner history of the reign of George II.

pany. But Clive carried it through; and, when finally he returned to England, he left the administration of Bengal, if not wholly purified, at least vastly improved.

His actions, moreover, by giving rise to much discussion, awakened in Britain an interest in Indian affairs. So, indirectly, they served another useful purpose. People suddenly became aware that a company trading under the British flag had acquired a great empire in the East; and they began to wonder if it were right that a body of merchants should be left in unfettered control.

In 1773, Parliament took a step towards bringing India under the authority of the Imperial Government. It passed an Act which gave to the king the right of appointing a governor-general of all the Company's territories. The first governor-general was Warren Hastings.

Warren Hastings, who came of a family of noble lineage but small fortune, was born at Daylesford, in Worcestershire, in 1732. Orphaned while still a child, he passed into the custody of a distant relative who, wishing to be rid of him as soon as possible, shipped him off to Calcutta as a writer in the service of the East India Company.

Hastings arrived at Calcutta in October, 1750, and was given charge of a small factory at a place named Cossimbazar. In 1756, Suraj-ud-Dowlah, while on his way to Calcutta (page 148), seized this defenceless settlement, and Hastings was made a prisoner. A few months later, he escaped, and joined Clive's army, bringing with him a great deal of very valuable information. Thus he won his way to the notice of the commander-in-chief. After that his promotion was rapid.

For twelve years, from 1773 to 1785, Warren Hastings, a stern, hard man, ruled in the East with a rod of iron, forcing those under him to build on the foundations which Clive had well and truly laid. But he was just man as well as stern, and, by rediscovering for the British people the long-lost secret of imperial Rome—the secret of governing subject peoples for the benefit of the conquered, rather than of the conqueror—he conferred an inestimable boon on the native races of India and helped, in no small measure, to make the British Empire what it is.

Hastings' term of office in the East included the period of the War of American Independence. In most parts of the world, British prestige at that time was sadly lowered. In one part, British arms met only with success. That was due to the genius of Warren Hastings.

In 1778, the French, having espoused the cause of the American colonists, at once sought to stir up trouble for the British in India. The Peace of Paris of 1763 had rendered it impossible for them to maintain any considerable military establishment in that country (page 150). The treaty, however, had not deprived them of their old gift of intrigue, or of their skill in dealing with native races; and in Haider Ali, a Mohammedan adventurer, endowed with real military talents, who had lately set himself up as ruler of Mysore, they found a man admirably fitted to serve their ends.

At the instigation of French agents and counting on the co-operation of a French fleet, Haider Ali made a bold bid to add the Carnatic to his dominions. In 1780, he swept down from Mysore, at the head of 20,000 horsemen, and carried fire and sword to the very gates of Madras.

The attack was well timed. The bulk of the British troops in India were then deeply engaged in the west, where the Bombay Government, in an attempt to assert sovereignty in that region, had been drawn into a war with the Mahrattas (page 144). Hastings, however, rose to the occasion. Money and supplies he sent to Madras at once. An army followed as soon as it could be equipped.

These reinforcements enabled Sir Eyre Coote (page 150) to bring Haider Ali's victorious progress to a standstill, and at Porto Novo, in July, 1781, the hero of Wandewash gained a decisive victory. A few days later, the French fleet appeared off the coast, but the Mysore horsemen were then in full retreat towards their native hills. Meanwhile, the Mahrattas, though not vanquished, had been considerably reduced in power and had concluded a treaty distinctly favourable to the British.

In 1785, Hastings returned to London, expecting to receive the thanks of his king and countrymen. He received those thanks—thanks of a strange kind—at Westminster Hall. There, before the House of Lords, the Commons impeached ¹ him, charging him with corrupt practices such as he had ruthlessly punished in others.

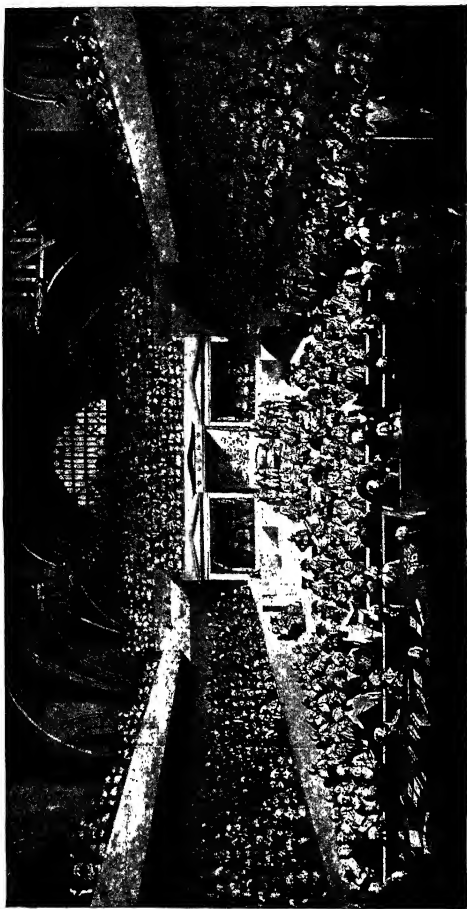
The charges were not without foundation. To raise money for the Mysore war, Hastings had unscrupulously plundered the treasures of certain Bengal princes. On another occasion—also to raise money—he had hired out British troops that one native prince might desolate the province of another.

But these things he had done only under stress of dire necessity. Money had to be raised somehow for the Mysore war. The hiring out of British troops was a device to which the governor-general had been driven by the London directors' insistent demands for dividends.

After a trial which lasted seven years, his judges acquitted Hastings on every count. That verdict has since been endorsed at the bar of history. The circumstances of the trial, however, broke the accused in health and spirit, and legal expenses consumed his fortune. In 1818 he died, a soured and disappointed man.

The East India Company was a trading concern; it aimed at earning profits for its shareholders. An imperialism which is based on motives of gain is not a sound imperialism. (Facts brought to light at Warren Hastings' trial made this abundantly clear.) In 1784, a second step was taken (page 152) towards bringing India under the authority of the Imperial Government. In that year a Board of Control, appointed by the Crown, was placed directly over the Company.

¹ A British subject may be impeached—that is, prosecuted in the House of Lords by the House of Commons—for any crime. In practice, this form of trial has rarely been employed except in cases of high treason and grave offences against the State. It is now practically obsolete. The last case occurred in 1806, when Henry Dundas (Viscount Melville) was impeached, and acquitted, on a charge of having misappropriated public funds while acting as First Lord of the Admiralty.



WESTMINSTER HALL, DURING THE TRIAL OF WARREN HASTINGS

(From a contemporary drawing by E. Dayes.)

The trial—one of the most famous that has taken place in Britain—began on February 12, 1788, and went on for seven years. Edmund Burke and Richard Brinsley Sheridan, politician and dramatist, were Hastings' principal accusers. So great was public interest in the case that people paid as much as fifty guineas for a seat in the Hall.

India continued to be governed in this way—by a trading company controlled by State-appointed officials—till 1858, when the Company was finally deprived of its administrative functions. Under this regime, the sphere of British influence was widely extended.

The history of the years 1784 to 1858 is an unbroken chronicle of wars—wars in Mysore, Mahratta wars, wars with Gurkhas and the brave Sikhs of the Punjab, wars in Afghanistan, wars in Burma : wars everywhere. These, almost without exception, resulted in further British gains, in a narrowing of the field in which men of Indian race could exercise political authority. Yet in the end, when the whole peninsula had been brought under the British Crown, those men were the chief gainers. Under British rule, the peoples of India at last enjoyed the blessings—peace, order, and justice—which they had been vainly seeking for nearly four thousand years, ever since the Hindus settled in the valley of the Ganges.

CHAPTER X

THE EVE OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

1.—THE OLD REGIME

Louis XIV, Frederick II of Prussia, Peter the Great, and other famous kings of whom we have read in these pages, in serving their own interests served national interests as well. By constantly supervising the machinery of government, by interesting themselves in public works, and by fostering commerce and education, they did a great deal to increase the prosperity of their realms and to promote the well-being and happiness of the peoples they ruled. On this account, the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries are sometimes known as “the age of benevolent despots.”

Yet, if we compare those times with the present, we

are at once struck by the fact that the progress of change and reform was then much slower than it is now. A Frenchman who died in 1570, could he have revisited the earth two centuries later, would have found that in 1770 the conditions of life in his native country were very much as he had known them of old. In 1870, if he had come back again, he would have felt himself indeed a stranger in a strange land; nothing was then as it had been. Were he to return to-day, surely he would think that he had been led in error to the wrong planet.

The benevolent despot claimed to rule "by the grace of God." But even the *Grand Monarque* could do only one man's work. In the nineteenth century the great forces of nations were pressed into the public service. A nation, if its labour be carefully co-ordinated, may achieve in a few weeks what one man, toiling alone, can hardly hope to accomplish in a lifetime. So it came about that the countries of Europe in the eighteenth century were still steeped in obsolete survivals. Their rulers, in many cases, knew these things to be worthless encumbrances. But they simply had not the time to sweep them away.

The authority of one king prevailed throughout France. Yet France, under the so-called "old regime" (*ancien régime*), was not a unified state. Its various provinces—relics of feudal days—so far from being convenient administrative divisions as are the modern *departments*, were but a group of principalities which a long line of kings had patched together by conquest, treaty, and marriage alliances; each had its own customs, its own institutions and laws. In 1770, there were two hundred and eighty-five local codes of law in force; systems of taxation were almost as numerous.

In the Middle Ages, society had recognized two ruling classes—the nobility and the clergy. In return for the services they rendered to the State as provincial governors, the members of these classes were accorded definite privi-

leges. In the seventeenth century, the central government—the benevolent despot—relieved them of their administrative duties. Their privileges, however, they were allowed to retain.

In 1770, the population of France numbered nearly 25,000,000 persons. About 140,000 belonged to noble families; about 140,000 were churchmen or members of religious orders. Yet these two groups, enjoying exemption from taxation and holding a monopoly of honours and lucrative public appointments, owned one-half of the land of the country. They owned more than a half; and—owing to the persistence of the mediæval notion of “no land without its lord”—even the free proprietor, the farmer who could claim possession of the fields he ploughed, commonly had to pay a number of vexatious dues, prescribed by feudal custom, to some neighbouring lord who did nothing for him.

The lord of a manor had a right to a portion of the crops grown in his district. He only might maintain a mill. All who belonged to the community had there to grind their grain. Similarly, they had to bake their bread in the lord's oven, and press their grapes in his winepress. In each case the lord took a share of the product.

Hunting was a pastime reserved for the nobility. Farmers were forbidden to erect fences to exclude destructive game from their fields; and, if the horses of noble sportsmen trampled down their wheat, they could not hope for redress. The labour and expense involved in the upkeep of bridges and roads rested entirely on the common people; and upon them, in time of war, fell the brunt of the fighting. Yet the son of a commoner might not hold even a lieutenancy in the army.

This state of affairs, manifestly unjust, was not peculiar to France. In Spain, and some other countries, conditions were worse. In Prussia, in Russia, and in central and eastern Europe generally, peasants still lived and died on the same manors, working for their lords as their ancestors had worked five hundred years earlier, and tilling their own poor fields by moonlight. Even in the so called republics, oppression of the many was the rule of the day. A superior caste governed at Venice. A

merchant aristocracy monopolized power in Holland. In Switzerland, class distinctions were sharply defined.

In Britain, affairs were better ordered. There only the eldest surviving son of a nobleman inherited his father's rank. Thus the nobility formed a less numerous and less exclusive body than in those continental countries where all the sons of a nobleman ranked as nobles. The British nobility, moreover, were liable to the same taxes and subject to the same laws as commoners.

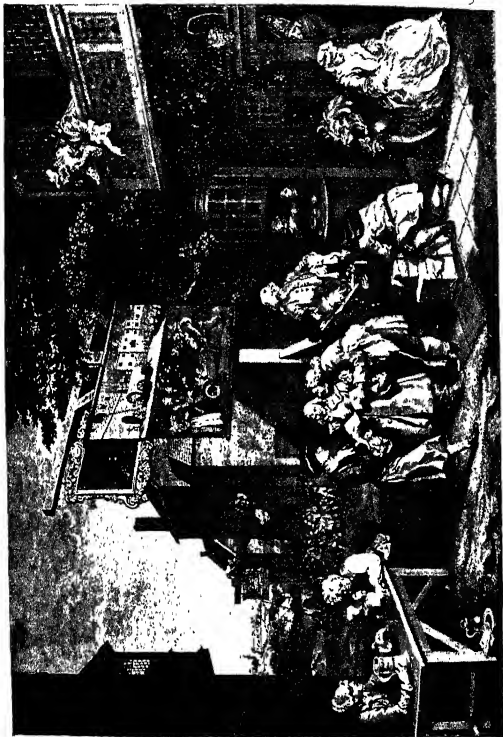
Britain, again, was much more nearly unified than France or Spain; and the monarchy did not try to conduct the whole business of the realm. By the Revolution of 1688 (page 90) the people had rejected the doctrine of "the divine right of kings," and had established the principle that sovereignty lay with the king in Parliament.

Yet not until the nineteenth century did they really carry this principle into effect. George III, in temper, was as autocratic as Louis XIV, and more often than not—by means of a systematic corruption of the House of Commons—he made his royal will prevail. In any case, Parliament directly represented the interests only of one class. Prior to the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832, a very small minority of the nation possessed the franchise—that is, had the right to vote; and many of the "seats" lay in the gift of wealthy or influential individuals.

Eighty-four individuals, by controlling so-called "rotten boroughs," returned one hundred and sixty members to the House of Commons. Several of these "rotten boroughs" were little more than grassy mounds or decaying walls, not boroughs at all. Old Sarum is a notorious instance.

In Saxon and Norman times, Old Sarum had been a place of some importance. In the thirteenth century, however, the inhabitants migrated in a body to the vicinity of the great cathedral which had lately been built near-by at New Sarum or Salisbury. Yet in the eighteenth century Old Sarum still sent two representatives to Westminster. So did Dunwich, which had long been submerged in the North Sea. Leeds, already a populous town, did not send one. Nor did Birmingham. Nor did Manchester.

William Pitt (Earl of Chatham), when he was returned for the



CANVASSING FOR VOTES IN 1754

This is one of a set of four famous "election" engravings by William Hogarth (1697-1764). Two of them, the Royal Oak and the Crown, are the headquarters of the rival candidates: a third, the Porto Bello, is neutral. Notice the election poster hanging from the sign of the Royal Oak. Below it an elector is receiving bribes from the agents of both parties. The Crown is being attacked by a mob, who are trying to pull down the sign, while the landlord shoots at them from a window. Outside the third inn, two men are quietly drinking and discussing the capture of Porto Bello, a Spanish town on the isthmus of Panama, taken by Admiral Vernon in 1739.

first time to Parliament, in 1735, sat as a member for Old Sarum. His grandfather, a former governor of Madras, "shook the pagoda tree" (page 151) with much success. When he retired, he purchased large estates in England, including several "rotten boroughs."

In Britain in the eighteenth century, as in all other, European countries, place and power, in practice—whatever may have been the theory—continued to be the birthright of a favoured few. The mass of the people exercised no control over the making of laws, or over the disposition of public funds. Roman Catholics and Dissenters—i.e. Protestants who did not agree with the teaching of the State Church—alike were excluded from public offices. Freedom of speech and freedom of the Press, now cherished liberties, had yet to be attained; and on the statute book there were still no fewer than two hundred and fifty offences for which the penalty was death.

2.—THE PHILOSOPHERS

In 1770, we have seen, the general conditions of life in Europe had been but slightly altered since 1570. An observant man, however, would have noticed two important changes. He would have noticed a change in the distribution of wealth. And he would have noticed a change in ideas. Also he would have noticed that these two changes were closely related.

The benevolent despots, eager to create new sources of revenue, encouraged commercial enterprise. So they helped to establish in society a new or "middle" class—a class of well-to-do merchants and manufacturers. While nobles idly squandered riches, these people rapidly amassed large fortunes. Wealth gave them leisure. Leisure brought to them both the desire and the opportunity to learn—the desire and the opportunity to read and to think. By the middle of the eighteenth century they had become, in almost every European country,

not only the most prosperous but the most intelligent section of the community.

Some employed their money to purchase power and privileges (page 161). The majority, however, debarred by the accident of birth from attaining to high places in the State, became the critics of their social superiors, and set themselves up in opposition to the existing regime. In this way was started a widespread revolution which was soon to overthrow the old order of things.

In mediæval Europe, civilization had been very unprogressive. People looked all the while to the past, rather than to the future. They vaguely hoped for a return of the supposed "good old days."

The geographical discoveries of the sixteenth century widened their outlook and stirred their imagination. A general awakening of intellectual activity was the result. Men then threw off the shackles of superstition and tradition. They began to look forwards—to dream of new and better conditions of life; and they ceased to be content blindly to accept all the beliefs which their fathers had handed down to them.

Scientists at last put to the test of experiment the mediæval explanations of natural phenomena. By experiment they proved the absurdity of the old, time-honoured notions (see Book II of this series, page 46). More important still, by means of experiment they discovered the existence of law in nature, and so made possible the mechanical and scientific boons which we enjoy to-day.

Meanwhile, a school of thinkers, known as "the philosophers," applied the test of reason—the test of common-sense—to those political, religious and social institutions which had long stood unchallenged. Institutions approved by the past are not necessarily good for the present. In the light of reason, the philosophers showed that Church, Society and State alike were overgrown with



VOLTAIRE (1694-1778)

A remarkable contemporary drawing of the most remarkable man of the eighteenth century—François Marie Arouet, or Voltaire as he chose to call himself. On account of his bitter attacks on the Christian churches, Voltaire is often wrongly described as an atheist. "The philosopher," he wrote, "who recognizes a God has with him a crowd of probabilities equivalent to a certainty, while the atheist has nothing but doubts."

survivals which had outlived their utility. They urged that all such things should be rooted up, that the whole garden of Western civilization should be replanted and restocked.

This new gospel they preached in every country of Europe; and, in the eighteenth century, they became

everywhere the mouthpiece of the discontented "middle" class. The most notable of the philosophers of that time were Frenchmen. Two of them call for special mention here—Voltaire, whom Frederick the Great strangely elected to make his friend (page 78), and Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712–78).¹

Voltaire (1694–1778) addressed himself not only to scholars, but to the world at large, and the writings of this extraordinary man exercised an incalculable influence on the course of history. He excelled in the use of mockery. When cleverly wielded, there is no weapon more effective. Voltaire employed it with deadly skill. He mocked at everything he saw around him, and, by remorselessly exposing shams and injustices, made people throughout Europe conscious of the wrongs which they were suffering.

Rousseau showed them how these evils might be remedied. Rousseau wrote on every imaginable subject, and much of his work was merely ephemeral. He wrote one book, however, which will live for all time. It is entitled the *Social Contract*. It is quite a small book, smaller than this; the whole of it can be printed in a hundred pages. Yet it is one of the greatest books that have ever been written. It is the direct source of the theory of the modern democratic State.

In the *Social Contract*, Rousseau sought to explain how one man can have the right to rule over others. The book opens with these words: "Man is born free, and yet is now everywhere in chains. One man believes himself the master of others and yet is, after all, more of a slave than they. How did this change come about? . . . What can render it legitimate?"

Rousseau professed himself unable to answer the first of these questions. Regarding the second he wrote: "I believe that I can answer that question."

The answer he gave was, briefly, this: Men are bound together

¹ Rousseau was a native of Switzerland; his father was a watch-maker at Geneva. As a young man, he migrated to Paris, and in France he spent a large part of his vagabond life. He is generally accounted, therefore, among the French philosophers.

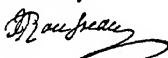
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in communities by conscious association—by a “social contract.” Only by the will of the people, therefore, can government be rendered legitimate.

Sovereignty, Rousseau maintained, was “the expression of the general will,” not the authority of a king reigning “by the grace of God.” A people, he argued, might appoint one man to manage the Government on their behalf, and might call him “king,” “emperor,” or what they chose. They, however, must retain the right of making the laws which they have to obey.

France was the first *European* state to register in its institutions and laws the revolution which Voltaire,

*Ainsi, Monsieur, je confirme à la fin ce que vous
m'avez écrit d'avoir écrit à la hâte, et que vous jugez n'être
pas digne de moi; jugement auquel j'adhérerai de
répondre faute de l'entendre suffisamment*

*Revenu, Monsieur, je vous supplie, les assurances de
mon respect* 

HANDWRITING OF JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU

A facsimile (reduced) of a letter now in the British Museum. It is dated: Motiers, 15 July, 1764. Motiers is a village in Switzerland.

Rousseau, and their fellow philosophers, effected in the realm of thought. . . .

3.—KING LOUIS XV

When, in our history books, we come to a chapter headed “The French Revolution,” we expect to read of savage, howling mobs lusting for the blood of “aristocrats,” of the guillotine ¹ and its countless victims, and of a misguided king (Louis XVI) bravely facing the

¹ The guillotine, an instrument for inflicting capital punishment, was introduced into France in 1792. It was named after its reputed inventor, Dr. Joseph Ignace Guillotine. Contrary to the widely-accepted tradition, the doctor was not made a victim of his own invention; he died a natural death.

terrible death he was called upon to meet for reasons he never really understood. In the next Book of this series we shall come to a chapter headed "The French Revolution." There, set out for us to read, we shall find the story of those dreadful happenings. Yet they did not constitute the French Revolution.

The so-called "Reign of Terror" was but a deplorable episode in the upheaval which overthrew the old regime in France. In the eyes of the historian, it now appears as one of the least important episodes. All that was of permanent value in the revolutionary movement, all that was fundamental, had been accomplished before the guillotine claimed a single victim. Long before the king was executed, France had ushered democracy (Greek, *demokratia*, "government by the people")¹ into Europe.

The French Revolution is sometimes represented as the uprising of a nation goaded to despair by oppression. If we regard it in that light, however, we are apt to miss its most salient feature.

In the eighteenth century, conditions of life in France compared very favourably with those which obtained elsewhere. In 1789, the year of the outbreak of the Revolution, the peoples of other countries had many more grievances than had the French. With the exception, perhaps, of the British, the French at that time were the least oppressed and the happiest nation in Europe; without exception, they were the most prosperous. Why, then, were they first to rebel against the old regime?

In 1715, when King Louis XIV died, France had about 17,000,000 inhabitants. By 1789 the figure had risen to 25,000,000. No other European country was so densely populated. The population of no other European country

¹ Note the essential difference between democracy as understood in ancient Greece and democracy as understood in the modern world. Among the Greeks only "free men" counted as "the people" (*demos*). The majority of the inhabitants of the old Greek States were slaves.

could show a corresponding rate of increase. Density of population is a safe criterion of national prosperity ; and the fact that the French during the eighteenth century steadily increased in number suggests that conditions in their country were improving, not growing worse.

This conjecture is supported by the testimony of contemporary observers. Foreigners who visited France, even as late as the summer of 1789, almost invariably commented, in their letters and diaries, on the happy lot of the people.

Dr. Rigby, an Englishman who travelled in France in the summer of 1789, thus described, in a letter to his wife, what he saw between Calais and Lille :

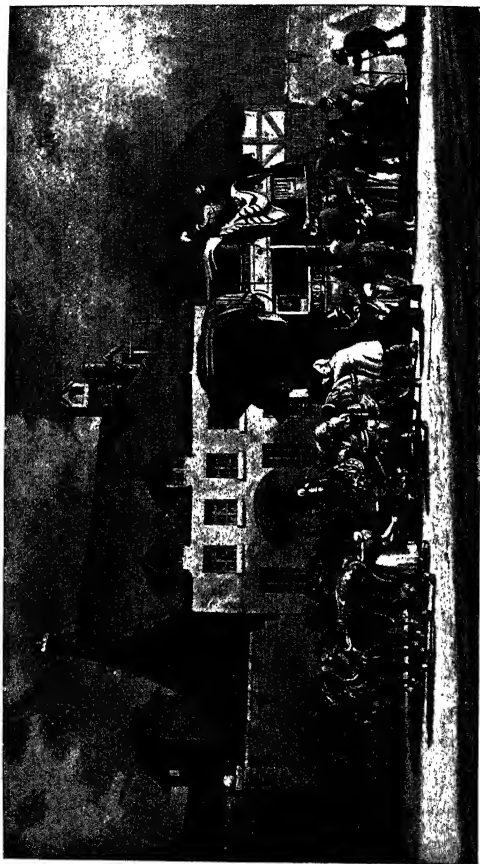
"We went through an extent of seventy miles, and I will venture to say there was not a single acre but what was in a state of the highest cultivation. The crops were beyond any conception I could have had of them—thousands and tens of thousands of acres of wheat, superior to any which can be produced in England. . . .

"The general appearance of the people is different to what I expected ; they are strong and well-made. We saw many agreeable scenes as we passed along in the evening before we came to Lisle (Lille) : little parties sitting at their doors, some of the men smoking, some playing at cards in the open air, others spinning cotton. Everything we see bears the mark of industry, and the people look happy. We have indeed seen few signs of opulence in individuals, for we do not see so many gentlemen's seats as in England, but then we have seen few of the lower classes in rags, idleness and misery. What strange prejudices we are apt to take regarding foreigners !"

From Lille the doctor made his way eastward across the German border. Germany he described as "a country to which Nature has been equally kind as to France." But, wherever he went, he found that "tyranny and oppression have taken up their abode."

At Cologne, he wrote to his wife, "there was a gloom and an appearance of disease in almost every man's face we saw. . . . The state of wretchedness in which they live seems to deprive them of every power of exertion . . . the land is uncultivated and depopulated. How every country and every people we have seen since we left France sinks in comparison with that animated people !"¹

¹ The illustration on page 168 gives a good idea of travelling conditions on the Continent. Compare also the advertisement of a stage coach plying between London and Frome, reproduced on page 200.



A FRENCH "DILIGENCE," OR STAGE COACH, OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

(By kind permission of Walker's Galleries, Ltd., 118, New Bond Street, London.)

Travel by stage coach was slow, tedious, and costly. In the eighteenth century, the journey from London to Edinburgh took at least a fortnight. As roads were improved, the speed was accelerated. For example, in 1836 the mail coach was timed to cover the 400 miles between London and Glasgow in forty-one hours.

Yet in July, 1789, France was plunged into revolution. Why ?

If we would find the answer to that question, we must not be content to regard the French Revolution simply as the uprising of a people goaded to despair. The French were the pioneers of democracy in Europe not because they were oppressed beyond all other nations, but because they alone were sufficiently free and enlightened to see the injustices of the old regime, and because it was in their country that the system of absolute monarchy, of "benevolent despotism," first broke down.

To these reasons may be added a third.

In 1778 the King of France espoused the cause of the American colonists then in revolt against the British Crown. He did this (page 109) in order to avenge his country on an old enemy and rival. That desire he gratified. The support of a French army and a French fleet enabled Washington to achieve the independence of the United States, and so to humiliate Britain. The King of France, however, by helping the Americans to throw off the rule of their lawful sovereign, let loose forces which shook the very foundations of the house of Bourbon.

During the War of American Independence, thousands of Frenchmen crossed the Atlantic. In the United States they saw a democratic government, unhampered by tradition, actually in operation. All were favourably impressed by its efficiency ; and some of them—notably, the Marquis de Lafayette, the commander of the French forces—returned to Europe, at the close of the war, determined to introduce into the Old World popular institutions modelled on those of the New.

The Marquis de Lafayette was one of the prime instigators of the revolutionary movement in France.

A system of absolute monarchy must depend for its successful working largely on the personal character of

the monarch. In France, under Louis XIV, the system worked well. The *Grand Monarque*, despite his many faults, was a man of exceptional ability. He was, moreover, a truly national king. His subjects respected and trusted him; and he deserved their respect and trust. He gave them wealth; he gave them power; he made them the leading nation in Europe; and, though selfish ambition led him to squander blood and treasure abroad, he consistently maintained peace and good government at home.

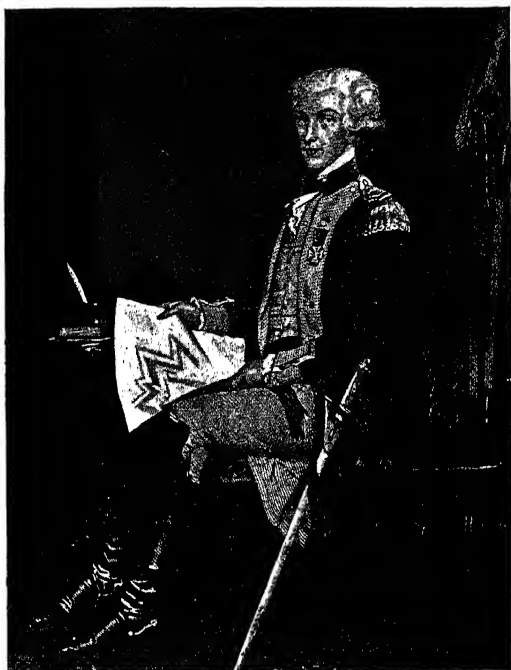
His great-grandson and successor, Louis XV (see table facing page 40), was a man of very different character. Louis XV, who reigned in France for nearly sixty years (1715-76),¹ lacked all the high qualities necessary to an absolute monarch, and he occupies in French history an invidious position similar to that held by King John in the history of England. No king ever came to a throne with a stronger hold on the loyalty of his subjects. No king ever left a throne more generally hated and despised.

Louis XV lived only for his pleasures. The task of governing France he delegated to greedy courtiers and adventuresses. These people, concerned mainly in advancing their own fortunes, lightly sacrificed every interest of the State.

The wars of Louis XIV had burdened France with debt, but they had brought at least some honour and advantage to the nation. The wars in which Louis XV recklessly engaged—in particular, the War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War—doubled the burden of debt and brought little to the nation save defeat and shame.

The soldiers of France fought as bravely as they had ever fought. Time after time, however, they were be-

¹ Louis XV was only five years of age at the time of his accession. During his minority, his cousin, the Duke of Orleans, acted as Regent. The duke was a more despicable person even than the king.



THE MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE (1757-1834)

commanded French forces in America during the War of Independence. He was a revolutionary leader in France in 1789, also in 1830; and to him the French Republic owes its flag, the famous "tricolour"—blue, white and red in vertical bars, the blue being nearest the staff. In 1824, the U.S.A. Government granted Lafayette a large sum of money and an estate.

trayed by those responsible for the directing of operations. The imperial duchy of Lorraine¹ (see the map on page

¹ Alsace (page 20) and Lorraine were surrendered to Germany after the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1, but were restored to France by the Treaty of Versailles of 1919.

80), acquired in 1766, and the island of Corsica taken from the Genoese in 1769, just in time for Napoleon Bonaparte to be born a Frenchman,¹ were paltry gains to set against the loss of Canada and the overthrow of French power in India.

Louis XIV had been extravagant. But he appears thrifty in comparison with his successor, and much of the money which he wrung from his subjects he spent for their own benefit. It was ever his first care to render France strong in peace and war. By raising useful public buildings, moreover, by endowing libraries and schools, and by constructing bridges, canals and roads, the *Grand Monarque* made France a better place for men to live in. Louis XV had nothing to show for all his vast expenditure.

The Emperor Nero (A.D. 54–68) is said to have set fire to Rome that he might enjoy the spectacle of a burning city. With the same cruel deliberation, Louis XV drove France upon the rocks of bankruptcy. Nero fiddled while Rome burned. Louis XV could not even fiddle; this vicious, idle spendthrift merely laughed while the good ship of State, which he had wrecked, sank lower and lower.

“Les choses, comme elles sont, dureront bien autant que moi” (“Things will hold together till my death”), he was wont to say. *“Après nous le déluge,”* his notorious favourite, Madame de Pompadour, would add.

4.—KING LOUIS XVI AND HIS QUEEN

In 1774, Louis XV died of smallpox.² His grandson, Louis XVI (see the table facing page 10), succeeded to the

¹ Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, on August 15, 1769. His father was a lawyer.

² In 1775, an English doctor, Edward Jenner, started the series of experiments which enabled him to announce in 1798 that, in the inoculation treatment known as vaccination, he had discovered an almost certain means of preventing smallpox.

throne of France, and a sigh of relief went up from every heart in the country. Of the new king, then in his twenty-first year, report had only good to say. The people, therefore, hoped for better times. It seemed likely, indeed, that Louis XVI, an honest and sober-minded young man, would take a place among the "benevolent despots."

But a prince endowed even with the ability and energy of Louis XIV would have found it difficult, in 1774, to restore the prestige of the monarchy in France. Louis XVI proved wholly unequal to the task. This prince, whom fate perversely chose to govern a great nation at a critical time in its history, was intended by nature to be a locksmith. A very ordinary young man, ill-educated and slow-witted, he was really happy only when pottering about in his workshop. Though free from the vices of his grandfather, he lacked nearly all the essential kingly qualities.

Frederick the Great habitually rose at five o'clock in the morning to study State papers. Louis XIV worked for seven hours a day at his desk. Louis XVI could not bring himself to do this sort of thing. The business of governing bored him. State papers, when he read them, rarely conveyed much meaning to him.

None the less, having undertaken the burden of kingship, he strove conscientiously to perform his duties. The excellence of his intentions cannot be questioned; he was sincerely solicitous for the welfare of his people. But he was weak and irresolute. He never met difficulties for so long as they could be avoided, and he had very little faith in his own judgment. As a matter of fact, his judgment often was right. Time after time, however, he allowed his will to be overruled by the stronger wills of his courtiers and by the much stronger will of Marie Antoinette, his beautiful queen.

The latter was a daughter of the Empress Maria Theresa (page 78). Louis, as heir to the throne, had

been betrothed to her in 1770 with a view to the maintenance of the Franco-Austrian alliance of 1756 (page 83).

A lively, pleasure-seeking, wayward girl, Marie Antoinette had as few qualifications for her high position as had her husband for his. Though a Hapsburg, she was not even clever ; and she made no attempt to understand the problems of State. Yet she would not abstain from meddling with matters which lay outside her province. It gratified her vanity to feel that she was the queen of France—in fact as well as in name ; and intrigue was in her blood. Marie Antoinette dearly loved power, the power which enabled her to reward her friends, and to bring trouble on the people she did not like.

To the queen's baleful influence must be attributed many of the woes which befell the royal family and people of France during the last quarter of the eighteenth century.

Louis XV, we have seen, left his country firm and fast on the rocks of bankruptcy. The deplorable condition of the national treasury was, therefore, the most urgent matter which his successor had to face. Louis XVI, sensible enough to know that this was a question with which he could not deal, very wisely called to his aid the ablest economist in the land, a man named Turgot, and appointed him controller-general of finances.

Turgot saw at once that no possible savings would suffice to make the national income balance the expenditure and, at the same time, pay the interest on outstanding loans. So he set about to find new sources of revenue. To impose additional taxes on the people was obviously impossible : the people were already overburdened. He decided, therefore, that the privileged classes—the nobles and the clergy—must be forced to forgo some, at any rate, of their immunities.

A shrewd Italian, when he heard of Turgot's appointment, wrote to a friend in France :

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"So Turgot is controller-general! He will not remain in office long. . . . He will punish some scoundrels; he will bluster about and lose his temper; he will be anxious to do good, but will run against obstacles and rogues at every turn. . . . It will be said that he is not fitted for his task. . . . He will retire or be sent off, and we shall have a new proof of the mistake of filling a position like his in a monarchy like yours with an upright man."

This letter might have been written after the event. The Italian⁷ accurately described what happened.

Turgot's proposed reforms immediately aroused the opposition of King Louis' courtiers. The king himself was inclined to support his minister. But the courtiers really ruled France—the courtiers and the queen. In 1776, Turgot was dismissed from office.

A few months later, the king appointed to the office of controller-general another able man, Necker, a Genevese banker. Necker saw as clearly as Turgot had seen that, if the ship of State were to be salvaged, privileges must be thrown overboard. Having regard to the fate of his predecessor, however, he realized that it would be useless to propose this drastic remedy. So he contented himself with effecting such economies as he could, and with improving the system of collecting the taxes already in force.

Necker carried out many useful reforms. But he did not succeed in making France solvent. In 1778 King Louis, as the champion of the United States of America, went to war with Britain (pages 110 and 169). Enormous sums of money were required for the conduct of the war. These could be raised only by borrowing; and in 1781, when Necker in turn suffered dismissal, the treasury was more heavily in debt than ever.

To induce people to subscribe to his war loans, Necker was driven to the expedient of issuing a statement which showed the State to be in possession of a surplus that did not exist. This false balance-sheet, which was printed and widely circulated, served its immediate purpose. At the same time, however, it produced an effect which its author had not anticipated.

Neither Louis XIV nor Louis XV had rendered anything in the shape of a public account of their expenditure. They had been careful not to allow the people even an inkling as to how much money was collected each year in taxes, or as to how that money was spent. The taxpayers of France, therefore, found Necker's report extraordinarily interesting reading. The figures gave them at least some idea of the criminal extravagance of the Court, and so directly fanned the rapidly spreading flame of discontent.

Calonne, Louis XVI's third controller-general, was a nominee of the queen. He tried to refloat the ship of State by the ingenious device of pretending that the ship was not a wreck; in other words, he sought to raise public credit by a policy of lavish spending. This, he argued, would make people think that France really was very rich.

Accordingly, he borrowed recklessly, and forced the expenditure of the Court up to a height that it had not touched even in the time of Louis XV.

Then came the inevitable day of reckoning. In August, 1786, Calonne, finding it impossible by any means to raise another loan, informed the astonished king that France *was* bankrupt.

5.—THE STORMING OF THE BASTILLE

Having regard to Calonne's report, Louis XVI was forced to acknowledge—by his actions, if not in words—that the system of absolute monarchy had broken down in France. As a means of escaping his difficulties, he resolved to invoke the aid of the old ruling classes, and straightway called together a council of the leading nobles and clergy of the land. This Assembly of Notables met at Versailles in 1787.

Calonne, at the opening meeting, addressed the assembly, and frankly explained the condition of affairs.

Then, in the king's name, he urged his hearers to institute the necessary reforms, to renounce their various immunities, and so to restore order in the national finances.

The nobles and the clergy refused to ratify this request. They had little confidence in Calonne, and they would not see how desperate was the plight to which their country had been brought. So they threw away an opportunity of regaining political power (page 10). With it, unwittingly, they threw away an opportunity of averting revolution. In May, the king dismissed the Assembly of Notables.

For another two years, Louis XVI contrived to govern as a despot. Then, driven to the last extremity, he was compelled to take counsel with his people. In 1789, he summoned a meeting of the Estates General of the realm (page 11).

The Estates General, the old national parliament of France, had not been called together since 1614. One hundred and seventy-five years, therefore, had passed since the last meeting. In 1789, so little was known about the institution that the king issued a general invitation to lawyers and scholars to find out all they could about its former powers, customs, and mode of procedure.

In this way, Louis XVI collected a great deal of interesting information. He learned, for example, what kind of costumes the deputies had worn in 1614. Accordingly, he gave orders that the deputies should appear, in 1789, clad in similar garments. But he did not succeed thus in recalling the spirit of earlier times.

The Estates General met at Versailles in May. Dissension immediately arose over the method of voting. Formerly, the three estates—that is to say, the nobility, the clergy, and the commons or third estate (*tiers état*)—had been accustomed to sit and vote not as a body, but by orders. The deputies of each estate had deliberated in private, considering the particular interests of the class to which they belonged, and then, in accordance with the decision of the majority, had cast one vote for their whole order.

The king decreed that this procedure—well suited, perhaps, to the requirements of a feudal society—should

be adopted in 1789. The nobles duly voted in favour of the arrangement. The clergy passed a similar resolution. The commons bluntly refused to comply with the royal behest; they insisted that the three estates should sit together, and that the deputies should vote as individuals, not by orders.

The commons saw that a majority of the nobles almost certainly would oppose any measure which adversely affected their privileges or the privileges of the clergy; also that a majority of the clergy would oppose any measure which affected their privileges or the privileges of the nobles. Therefore, they argued, if the three orders sat apart, the meeting of the Estates General would be as abortive as had been that of the Assembly of Notables: every useful reform that might be suggested must be rejected by two votes to one.

There was much to be said for this argument. But the king would not admit its validity. He argued—also quite rightly—that, were he to authorize the three estates to sit and vote together, he would automatically surrender all power into the hands of the third estate. The latter had been allowed to send 600 deputies; the other two estates were represented by 300 each. Were these 1,200 deputies, therefore, to sit in one House and vote as individuals, the commons, backed by their supporters among the lower clergy and by liberal noblemen such as Lafayette (page 171), would be assured of a majority on every occasion.

Thus a deadlock ensued. After a month of bitter contention, the king tried to effect a compromise. With this object in view, he announced his intention of convening a joint session of the three estates, and of presiding at it in person.

Louis, as was ever his wont, bestirred himself too late. On June 14, nine days before the opening of the royal session, the commons formally requested the deputies of the other two estates to sit with them in one House.



[Mansell phot.]

THE TENNIS COURT OATH (JUNE 20, 1789)

A famous scene depicted by a famous painter, Jacques Louis David (1748-1825). The original picture is now at Versailles. In the foreground will be noticed some clergy fraternizing with the Third Estate.

One or two nobles and a few of the clergy complied. The commons thus could claim that their House represented the whole nation, and on June 17 they proceeded to constitute it the *National Assembly*, decreeing that, in the event of the Crown dissolving it, "all taxes and dues of whatever nature, which had not been specifically, formally and freely granted by the said Assembly, shall cease in every province of the kingdom."

While preparations were being made for the royal session, the commons were temporarily excluded from their usual place of meeting. In the meanwhile they assembled at a neighbouring tennis court.¹ There, on June 20, they took a solemn corporate oath—known as "the Tennis Court oath"—that they would not separate "until the constitution of the kingdom shall be established."

Three days later, on June 23, the king opened the royal session. In a dignified and noble address, Louis besought the deputies to carry on the work of reform which he had started. He reminded them that the Estates General had then been assembled for nearly two months, but had not yet agreed even to essential preliminaries. Appealing to their love for France, he implored them to forget their petty differences.

"I owe it to myself," said King Louis, "to put an end to these disastrous differences. . . . If, by a fatality far from my thoughts, you abandon me in so great an enterprise, alone I will accomplish the welfare of my people; alone I will consider myself as their true representative; and . . . knowing the perfect accord that exists between the general wishes of the nation and my own benevolent intentions . . . I shall walk towards the goal with all the courage and firmness that it inspires in me."

¹ A *tennis* court, not a *lawn* tennis court! Tennis, one of the oldest of all ball games, is played in a large covered court. In olden times it was very popular throughout Europe. In the eighteenth century there were no fewer than 120 courts in Paris alone. The oldest existing tennis court in England is at Hampton Court Palace.

Then, having outlined a long and admirable programme of reform, he bade the deputies of the three estates to withdraw to their respective meeting places and to deliberate, in accordance with constitutional procedure, on the measures which he had proposed.

The nobles—all save a few—immediately obeyed. The majority of the clergy also obeyed. The commons, however, to a man sat firm. The master of the ceremonies commanded them, in the king's name, to withdraw. Then Mirabeau, a young nobleman who had come forward as a champion of the popular cause, rose to his feet.

"We will only leave our places," said Mirabeau, "by the force of the bayonet."

What action would the king take? Would he dissolve the Estates General, and walk alone towards his goal, confident, as he professed to be, in the support of the nation? Or would he yield to the demands of the commons?

Louis, at this crisis, showed a fatal lack of resolution. He wobbled and wavered, wobbled and wavered. Finally he capitulated: on June 27 he formally authorized the deputies of the two privileged orders to join the commons. But again he had deferred action until the right occasion had passed away; and, by the ungracious manner of his surrender, he revealed himself to the world as a man wanting in every quality of leadership.

On June 27, 1789, was accomplished the essential part of the French Revolution. On that day the king of France resigned his kingly powers into the hands of his people, and the National Assembly, as a legally constituted body, set seriously to work to bring about the regeneration of the kingdom.

Unhappily, the progress of peaceful reform in France was fated soon to be disturbed by events in Paris.

In June, the king—contrary to his own better judgment

—had been persuaded to assemble a large body of troops at Versailles, so that, should he decide to dismiss the Estates General, he might be in a position to quell any resulting disorder. The movements of these soldiers caused widespread alarm. In Paris, in particular, excitement became intense. There passions, already roused by the news which filtered through from Versailles, were raised to fever heat by the fiery eloquence of countless street orators.

The noisy vapourings of these men spread through the city all manner of unfounded and false reports. Every day currency was given to rumours of new plots and intrigues. Many of the troops in the royal guard were foreigners—Germans and Swiss¹: the citizens of Paris were told that their king purposed to employ these mercenaries to crush his own people. In the summer of 1789 there was a serious shortage of wheat in France: the people of Paris were told that the king was deliberately holding up supplies.

Then a story was set on foot that guns had been mounted on the Bastille, and that those guns were to be directed against Paris. The Bastille had long enjoyed an evil reputation in the capital. This royal fortress, the scene of many oppressions in the past, the place where men were imprisoned without trial (page 13), stood in its midst as a symbol of despotism.

On July 14, an infuriated mob, armed with weapons which had been pillaged from gun shops, marched against the stronghold. The governor and his followers offered a brave resistance. But the mob, by sheer weight of numbers, overpowered them and proceeded to set free the prisoners in their charge.

In the whole Bastille only seven prisoners were found. But one had lost his wits, and another did not know, or professed not to know, what crime he had committed.

¹ The story of the origin of King Louis' guard will be found in Book II of this series, page 97.

These victims of the tyranny of kings the mob paraded in triumph through the streets. Also, on pikes, they bore the heads of the garrison whom they had foully murdered, and loudly urged their fellow-citizens likewise to go and perform "deeds of patriotism."

"Why, this is a revolt!" exclaimed Louis XVI, when the news of the fall of the Bastille was brought to Versailles.

"Sir," said a courtier, "it is a revolution!"

EPILOGUE

THE BEGINNING OF THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

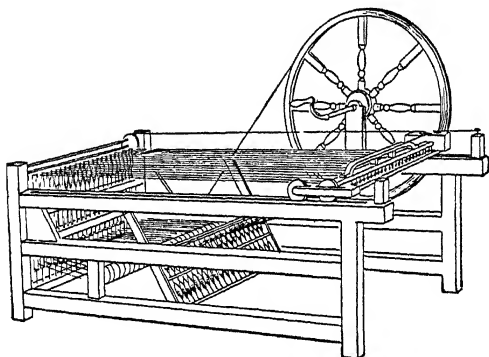
While the French Revolution was pursuing its turbulent course, another revolution—one which has changed the manner of men's lives to a yet greater extent—was proceeding on its way in Britain, quietly and almost unobserved. This is known as the Industrial Revolution.

The application of mechanical aids to manufacture first affected textile, or cloth-making, industries. In 1764, just ten years before Louis XVI came to the throne of France, James Hargreaves, a Lancashire weaver, devised a machine which enabled him, merely by turning a handle, to spin or twist from raw cotton more yarn in one hour than a hand-worker could spin in a day.

Hargreaves' "spinning jenny" was the father of all the marvellous contrivances employed in the modern industrial world.

The peoples of the ancient world, even the clever Greeks and Romans, showed no aptitude for mechanical invention. The things they manufactured were, literally, *manufactured*, made by hand (Latin, *manu facere*), and until about a hundred and fifty years ago very little was

added to the store of primitive appliances they used. In the eighteenth century, men tilled their fields, wove their garments and forged arms just as they had tilled, woven and forged in the days of Julius Cæsar. Methods of transporting merchandise, moreover, were at that time even less efficient than they had been in western Europe at the beginning of the Christian era ; while letters could be sent, say, to Italy from the Roman province of Britain actually more quickly than from the kingdom of King George III.



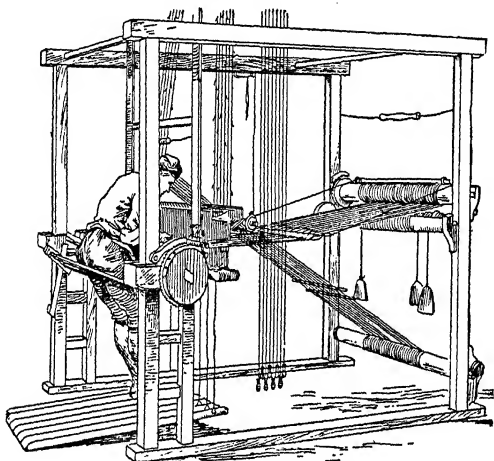
HARGREAVES' SPINNING JENNY

The scientific discoveries of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries encouraged inventiveness. Since then, inventors and scientists, working hand in hand, have wrought wonders on behalf of mankind. Compared with what these people have already achieved, the efforts of all the kings, conquerors and parliaments known to history seem puny and futile.

In 1769, Richard Arkwright, a barber and wig-maker of Bolton, improved on Hargreaves' spinning-machine.

Ten years later, another Englishman, Samuel Crompton, improved on Arkwright's. Crompton produced a machine driven by water-power. A lad could control it, and it would do the work of a hundred hand-spinners.

This had the immediate effect of throwing many people out of employment. In the cloth-making districts of Lancashire, cotton spinners deliberately destroyed the



AN EARLY HAND LOOM

machines which, they said, were depriving them of their livelihood. Then, in 1785, a clergyman—Edmund Cartwright by name, rector of Goadby Marwood, in Leicestershire—invented a loom, or weaving machine, which used up yarn so quickly as to create work for all the spinners who had lost their jobs, and for many more besides.

The inventions of Crompton and Cartwright greatly

reduced the cost of manufacture, and made it possible for British cotton merchants to undersell all others in the markets of Europe. The demand for British-made cotton fabrics increased by leaps and bounds. In 1760, the year of King George III's accession to the throne, Britain imported 4,000,000 lb. of raw cotton. In 1837, the year of Queen Victoria's accession, the total amounted to more than 500,000,000 lb.

Gradually ingenious brains found means of applying labour-saving mechanical aids to other industries. To-day, practically everything we use is made by machinery, and the factory system of production has almost entirely superseded the older domestic system. In former times, artisans carried on their trades, for the most part, at their homes or small shops, in the manner of the modern cobbler. The introduction of machinery pressed them to work in factories; and Manchester—described by a writer of 1725 as "the most rich, populous, and busy village in England"—Leeds, Birmingham, and a hundred other places, rapidly grew into the vast industrial centres which we know to-day, with their countless tall chimneys incessantly pouring forth smoke.

The transition from rural to urban conditions of life brought into being a host of new problems, social and political, for rulers to settle. Legislators are still grappling with those problems; and they find it difficult to keep pace with them, for new problems are created each year, while the nature of old ones is constantly changing. *The Industrial Revolution, you see, is still in progress.*

Before machinery could be widely useful, some force stronger than the muscles of men's arms and legs had to be harnessed to the wheels. Water-mills and windmills had been employed since very early times. But water-power is apt not to be available where it is wanted, and wind-power is very unreliable. In 1764, a clever young Scotsman, James Watt, whose job in life was to make

mathematical instruments for use at the university of Glasgow, produced a practical steam-engine. The application of steam-power to industry was responsible for the rapid development of machinery.

James Watt did not invent the steam-engine. Steam-engines, of a sort, were working in Britain—pumping water from tin- and copper-mines in Cornwall—certainly as early as 1700, thirty-six years before Watt was born. These early engines, however, owing to their enormous consumption of fuel, were very costly to run; they were unsatisfactory also in other respects. To Watt belongs the credit of detecting their defects, and of devising an engine which, while it generated much more power, consumed much less fuel.

The steam-engine was first adopted to serve manufacturing purposes in 1785. In that year an engine was set up to drive spinning machinery at a factory in Nottinghamshire. By the end of the century steam-engines were as common in Britain as water-mills and windmills. Outside Britain, however, very few were then to be found. In France, even in 1815, there was only one in use—at a small factory in Alsace.

Prior to Napoleon's final defeat at Waterloo, the Industrial Revolution made no appreciable progress on the continent of Europe. Between 1792 and 1815, the incessant ravages of war—which Britain happily escaped—stifled commercial enterprise in continental countries. But though Napoleon Bonaparte, unwittingly, did much to give Britain her long, long start in the race for industrial supremacy, Abraham Darby, a maker of cooking utensils at Coalbrookdale, in Shropshire, did very much more. Abraham Darby's name probably is not known to one person in a thousand. . . .

The furnishing of factories, in the manufacturing districts of northern England, with steam-driven machinery required that there should be available on the spot an abundance of iron from which machines might be

fashioned and an abundance of coal to create the steam to drive them. The coal was there. The iron also was there. But, till 1780, when Abraham Darby showed the way, people did not know how to avail themselves of that iron.

Men have employed iron instruments and weapons for thousands of years. Right down to the middle of the eighteenth century, however, the metal was extracted from the ore in which it is embedded by a crude process which demanded the use of charcoal, a substance produced from wood, to generate the necessary heat. What Darby did was to show how coal might be used for this purpose.

Hitherto British iron had been obtained almost entirely from the thickly wooded parts of Kent and Sussex and from the Forest of Dean, where charcoal could easily be produced. As a result of Darby's discovery, iron foundries were transferred to "the industrial north," where the metal lay in much larger quantities and where it was urgently needed.

In 1715, the total production of iron in Europe did not exceed 100,000 tons. More than 60,000 tons of this came from Russia and Sweden, where there were large forests. About 12,000 tons came from Britain. By 1740, British production had been increased to 18,000 tons. But, owing to the exhaustion of fuel supplies in the neighbourhood of the ironworks, it was becoming increasingly difficult to carry on the industry.

Just then Abraham Darby's great discovery became known. In 1780, Britain produced 90,000 tons of iron. In 1820, the last year of King George III's reign, she produced 400,000 tons; and to the world's output of coal, estimated at 11,500,000 tons, she contributed more than 10,000,000 tons. Napoleon called the British *une nation boutiquière* ("a shopkeeping nation"). In doing so, it has been said, "he missed the significance of the brawny

men who wielded pick and shovel in the mine, or swung the hammer in the light of the glowing forge."

Not until the middle of the nineteenth century did the Germans learn to use coal in their blast furnaces. When Queen Victoria came to the British throne, the progressive people of the United States of America were still smelting by means of charcoal.

APPENDIX

PEACE SETTLEMENTS OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

Set out below—for convenience of reference—are the main provisions of the treaties which concluded the three principal wars dealt with in this volume—the War of the Spanish Succession, the Seven Years' War, and the War of American Independence.

The War of the Spanish Succession, 1702–14, was terminated by the *Treaty of Utrecht* (confirmed in 1714 by a treaty between Austria and France signed at Rastadt).

Under the terms of this settlement—

1. *Austria* gained important parts of the Spanish heritage: Milan, Naples, Sardinia, and the Spanish Netherlands (now Belgium).
2. *Brandenburg-Prussia* gained territory on the Meuse; and Europe recognized the Elector of Brandenburg's assumption of the title of King of Prussia.
3. *Great Britain* gained Nova Scotia (Arcadia) and the Hudson Bay Territory from France, and was confirmed in her possession of Newfoundland. She also gained Gibraltar and Minorca from Spain. Further, Spain conceded to her certain trading rights in the New World, together with the *Assiento*, or contract for supplying Spanish America with negro slaves from W. Africa; whilst France acknowledged the Hanoverian succession and undertook not to seek to restore the House of Stuart to the British throne.
4. *Holland* gained certain frontier fortresses in the Netherlands.
5. *Savoy* gained Sicily from Spain; and the Duke of Savoy acquired the title of king. (*Note.*—In 1720 Savoy ceded Sicily to Austria in exchange for Sardinia—see page 26.)

This settlement marks—

- (a) an important stage in the growth of the British Empire;
- (b) an important stage in the rise of Prussia as a European Power;
- (c) a step towards the attainment of Italian unity under the House of Savoy; and
- (d) the end of a century of French ascendancy.

The Seven Years' War, 1756–63, was terminated by the *Treaty of Paris* between Great Britain and France, and by the *Treaty of Hubertsburg* between Austria and Prussia.

Under the terms of this settlement—

1. *Great Britain* took from France the whole of Canada, including Cape Breton Island, but excluding the islands of St.

Pierre and Miquelon, and she annexed the disputed territory between the Allegheny Mountains and the Mississippi. She took Florida from Spain. She retained a number of islands which she had captured in the West Indies—Dominica, Grenada, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Tobago; also Senegal on the west coast of Africa. Further, France agreed to have no military establishment in India, and on this condition was allowed to resume the factories she had held before the war.

2. *Prussia* was confirmed in the conquest of Silesia.
3. *Spain* gained Louisiana (ceded to France in 1800, and purchased from France by the U.S.A. in 1803).

This settlement—

- (a) made Britain the leading colonial Power in the world; .
- (b) gave Prussia a position in Central Europe at any rate equal with that held by Austria; and
- (c) marked a further stage in the decline of France and Spain.

The War of American Independence, 1776–83, was terminated by the *Treaty of Versailles*.

Under the terms of this settlement—

1. *Great Britain* recognized the complete independence of the United States of America, and ceded to them not only “the thirteen colonies” (area 280,000 sq. miles), but the whole of the country between the Mississippi and the Atlantic (area 828,000 sq. miles).
2. *France* regained St. Lucia and Tobago (lost in 1763); also Senegal.
3. *Spain* regained Florida (lost in 1763) and Minorca (lost in 1713).

[*Note*.—In 1829 Spain sold Florida to the U.S.A.]

This settlement—

- (a) dismembered the British Empire. Yet it laid the foundations of Britain’s imperial greatness. The British people found in Australia and Canada compensation for the loss of their American colonies. Further, they emerged from the war with their commercial and maritime position unshaken.
- (b) brought small territorial gains to the French Crown, but nothing else. The war left France in a state of financial ruin, and the French people clamouring for a democratic constitution modelled on that of the U.S.A. The French Revolution was the result.
- (c) seemed to strengthen the Spanish Empire in the New World. The Spanish colonies, however, soon followed the example of the U.S.A. Between 1813 and 1824, Spain lost all her possessions in South and Central America.

CHRONOLOGICAL

	BRITISH ISLES.	FRANCE, ITALY AND SPAIN	CENTRAL EUROPE.
	Charles II enters London : the Restoration, May, 1660.	Death of Cardinal Maza- rin, 1661.	
	Royal Society incorpor- ated, 1662.		Turks invade Hungary, 1663 ; and are defeated at battle of St. Got- hard, 1664.
1660 to 1675	Anglo-Dutch War, 1664-7. Great Plague of London, 1665. Great Fire of London, September 2-6, 1666. Dutch fleet sails up Thames to Gravesend : Milton's <i>Paradise Lost</i> published, 1667. Secret Treaty of Dover between Charles II and Louis XIV, 1670.	French E. India Co. incor- porated, 1664. Louis XIV claims Spanish Netherlands ; War of Devolution, 1667-8.	
		Franco-Dutch War, 1672-8	William III of Orange made Stadtholder of Netherlands, 1672.
		Louis XIV seizes Strass- burg, 1681.	Vienna besieged by Turks, 1683.
1675 to 1690	Accession of James II, 1685.	Louis XIV marries Mad- ame de Maintenon, 1684. Revocation of Edict of Nantes, 1685.	League of Augsburg formed to resist French claim to Palatinate, 1686. Austria recovers Hungary from the Turks, 1687.
	Flight of James II, 1688. William III and Mary declared joint sovereigns, 1689. Battle of La Hogue, 1692. Bank of England founded, 1694. First Eddystone Light- house started, 1696. Peter the Great visits England, 1698.	War of the League of Augsburg, 1688-97. Birth of Voltaire, 1694.	
1690 to 1705		Death of Charles II of Spain, 1700. War of Spanish Succes- sion, 1701-14.	Electoral of Brandenburg assumes title of King in Prussia, 1701.
	Accession of Queen Anne, 1702.	Gibraltar captured by Sir G. Rooke, 1704.	Battle of Blenheim (Vi- enna saved by Marl- borough), 1704.

CHART

N. AND E. EUROPE.	AFRICA AND ASIA.	AMERICA AND AUSTRALASIA.
<p>Achmet Kiuprili made Grand Vizier of Turkey, 1661.</p>	<p>British acquire Bombay, 1662.</p>	<p>British take New Amsterdam from Dutch, and re-name it New York, 1664.</p>
<p>Turks capture Candia after a 25 years' siege, 1669.</p>	<p>French acquire Pondicherry in India, 1670.</p>	<p>N. and S. Carolina founded by British colonists: Hudson Bay Co. incorporated, 1670.</p>
<p>Turks invade Poland, 1672. John Sobieski elected King of Poland, 1674.</p>		
<p>Kara Mustafa made Grand Vizier of Turkey, 1676.</p>		
<p>Peter the Great becomes Czar of Russia, 1682.</p>		
<p>Venice attacks the Turks, 1684.</p>	<p>Huguenots settle in S. Africa, 1685.</p>	<p>"King William's War" in N. America, 1688-97.</p>
<p>Athens bombarded, 1687.</p>		
<p>Peter the Great captures Azov, 1696.</p>	<p>Fort William (Calcutta) built by British E. India Co., 1696.</p>	<p>Delaware (British Colony in America) founded, 1701.</p>
<p>Charles XII becomes King of Sweden, 1697. Battle of Narva; Peter the Great defeated by Charles XII, 1700.</p>		<p>"Queen Anne's War" in N. America, 1701-13.</p>
<p>St. Petersburg (re-named Petrograd in 1914, and Leningrad in 1924) founded by Peter the Great, 1703.</p>		

1660
to
1675

1675
to
1690

1690
to
1705

CHRONOLOGICAL

BRITISH ISLES.	FRANCE, ITALY AND SPAIN.	CENTRAL EUROPE.
Union of English and Scottish Parliaments, 1707.	Battle of Malplaquet (near Mons), 1709.	Rousseau born at Geneva, 1712.
1705 to 1720	Treaty of Utrecht (between France on the one hand, and Britain, Holland, Portugal, Prussia and Savoy on the other). Accession of George I, 1714.	Treaty of Rastadt (between France and the Empire), 1714. Death of Louis XIV, whose great-grandson, Louis XV (aged 5), becomes king, 1715.
	Jacobite rebellion in Scotland and N. England—"the fifteen," 1715.	
	Defoe's <i>Robinson Crusoe</i> published, 1719.	Fahrenheit (of Danzig) invents his thermometer, 1720.
	Victor Amadeus II of Savoy created King of Sardinia, 1720.	
1720 to 1735	Robert Clive born at Market Drayton, 1725. Accession of George II, and death of Sir Isaac Newton (aged 85), 1727. John and Charles Wesley found Methodist Society at Oxford, 1729. Coal first used for smelting (by Abraham Darby), 1730.	Accession of Frederick II (the Great) of Prussia: Maria Theresa inherits Hapsburg possessions, 1740. Silesia seized by Frederick the Great, 1741. War of Austrian Succession, 1741-8. French defeated at Dettingen by Anglo-Austrian army led by George II, 1743.
1735 to 1750	War between Britain and Spain, 1739. "Rule Britannia" published, 1740.	
	'The Forty-five'; last attempt of House of Stuart to regain British throne, 1745.	Volta, the real founder of electrical science, born 1745; died 1826.
		Goethe born at Frankfurt, 1749.

CHART—continued.

N. AND E. EUROPE.

Battle of Pultava;
Charles XII utterly
defeated by Peter the
Great, 1709.

Turks recover the Morea
from Venice, 1715.

Death of Charles XII of
Sweden, 1718.

Treaty of Nystädt makes
Russia the chief Power
of N. Europe in the
place of Sweden, 1721.

AFRICA AND ASIA.

Death of Emp. Aurung-
zebe; end of power of
Mogul Empire, 1707.

Behring Straits discovered
by Vitus Behring, a
German in the Russian
service, 1728.

Dupleix appointed Gover-
nor of Pondicherry, 1741

First war between British
and French in the Car-
natic: French capture
Madras, 1746.

AMERICA AND AUSTRALASIA.

The French cede Nova
Scotia (Arcadia) to
Britain, and build
Louisbourg, 1713.

French build New Orleans,
at mouth of Mississippi,
1718.

Georgia, the last of "the
thirteen colonies,"
founded by Gen. Ogle-
thorpe: Geo. Washing-
ton born at Bridge's
Creek, Virginia, 1732.

Portobello taken from
Spaniards by Admiral
Vernon, 1739.

British take Louisbourg,
1744.

British build Halifax, 1749.

1705
to
1720

1720
to
1735

1735
to
1750

CHRONOLOGICAL

BRITISH ISLES.	FRANCE, ITALY AND SPAIN.	CENTRAL EUROPE.
	Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, 1755. Franco-Austrian Alliance, 1756.	Anglo-Prussian Alliance (Convention of Westminster) concluded, 1756
William Pitt (Earl of Chatham) becomes Prime Minister, 1756.		Outbreak of the Seven Years' War, 1756-63.
1759 to 1765	Admiral Byng executed for failing to relieve Minorca, 1757.	Frederick defeats French and Austrians at Rossbach and Leuthen, 1757.
	Accession of George III, 1760.	
	Treaty of Paris, 1763.	Treaty of Hubertsburg, 1763.
	Hargreaves' "spinning-jenny" and Watt's steam engine invented, 1764.	
	Parliament passed the (American) Stamp Act, 1765.	
	Lorraine annexed by France, 1766. French acquire Corsica: birth of Napoleon Bonaparte, 1769.	Birth of Beethoven, 1770.
1765 to 1780	Accession of Louis XVI of France, 1774.	
	Vaccination introduced by Dr. Edward Jenner, 1775.	
	France declared war on Britain in support of Americans, and death of Voltaire and Rousseau, 1778. Siege of Gibraltar, 1779-83.	
	Samuel Crompton's "spinning-mule" invented, 1779.	
		Death of Frederick the Great, 1780.
1780 to 1792	Meeting of Assembly of Notables at Versailles, 1787.	
	Opening of trial of Warren Hastings, 1788.	
	Meeting of the French Estates General, 1789.	
	Trial of Louis XVI began, 1792.	

CHART—continued.

N. AND E. EUROPE.	AFRICA AND ASIA.	AMERICA AND AUSTRALASIA.
First Russian University founded at Moscow, 1754.	Arcot seized by Clive, 1751.	
	"Black Hole of Calcutta," 1756.	General Braddock defeated near Fort Duquesne, 1755.
	Battle of Plassey, 1757.	
		Fort Duquesne captured and re-named Pittsburg, 1758.
	Battle of Wandewash, 1760.	Quebec captured by Gen. Wolfe, 1759.
Catherine the Great becomes Czarina of Russia, 1762.		Canada annexed by Britain, 1763.
		Botany Bay (Australia) discovered by Capt. Cook, 1770.
First Partition of Poland, 1772.		"The Boston Tea Party," 1773.
	Warren Hastings made first Governor-General of India, 1774.	
		Skirmish at Lexington; beginning of War of American Independence, 1775.
		Declaration of American Independence, July 4, 1776.
		Capt. Cook at Vancouver Island, 1778.
		Surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 19, 1780.
The Crimea annexed by Russia, 1783.	Battle of Porto Novo, 1781.	Peace of Versailles, 1783.
		First batch of convicts sent from Britain to Australia, 1788.
		Geo. Washington elected first President of U.S.A., 1789.
British Colony established at Sierra Leone, 1791.		Nootka Sound Convention between Britain and Spain, 1790.

COMPARATIVE TABLE

	BRITAIN.	FRANCE.	THE EMPIRE.	SPAIN.
1640	—	—	—	—
1643	—	Louis XIV	—	—
1645	—	—	—	—
1647	[COMMONWEALTH, 1649-60]	—	—	—
1654	—	—	—	—
1658	—	—	Leopold I	—
1660	Charles II	—	—	Charles II
1665	—	—	—	—
1672	—	—	—	—
1676	—	—	—	—
1682	—	—	—	—
1685	James II	—	—	—
1688	William III & Mary	—	—	—
1694	William III [alone]	—	—	—
1696	—	—	—	—
1697	—	—	—	—
1700	—	—	—	Philip V [first Bourbon king]
1701	—	—	—	—
1702	Anne	—	—	—
1705	—	—	Joseph I	—
1711	—	—	Charles VI	—
1713	—	—	—	—
1714	George I	Louis XV	—	—
1715	—	—	—	—
1718	—	—	—	—
1725	—	—	—	—
1727	George II	—	—	—
1730	—	—	—	—
1740	—	—	—	—
1741	—	—	—	—
1742	—	—	Charles VII [of Bavaria]	—
1745	—	—	Francis I [of Lor- raine, husband of Maria Theresa]	—
1746	—	—	—	Ferdinand VI
1748	—	—	—	—
1751	—	—	—	—
1759	—	—	—	Charles III
1760	George III	—	—	—
1762	—	—	—	—
1765	—	—	Joseph II	—
1771	—	—	—	—
1774	—	Louis XVI	—	—
1786	—	—	—	—
1788	—	—	—	Charles IV
1790	—	—	Leopold II	—
1792	—	[NATIONAL CONVEN- TION]	Francis II	—

OF EUROPEAN RULERS

PRUSSIA.	RUSSIA.	NETHERLANDS.	SWEDEN.	
Frederick William, the Great Elector	—	—	—	1640
—	—	—	—	1643
—	Alexis	—	—	1645
—	—	William II [<i>died</i> in 1650: HOUSE OF ORANGE then excluded from office till 1672]	—	1647
—	—	—	Charles X	1654
—	—	—	—	1658
—	—	—	Charles XI	1660
—	—	—	—	1665
—	—	William III [<i>subse-</i> <i>quently</i> William III of Great Britain]	—	1672
—	Feodore III	—	—	1676
—	Peter the Great and Ivan V	—	—	1682
—	—	—	—	1685
Frederick III	—	—	—	1688
—	—	—	—	1694
—	Peter the Great [alone]	—	—	1696
—	—	—	Charles XII	1697
—	—	—	—	1700
[Frederick III, Electors of Brandenburg, cr. Frederick I, King of Prussia]	—	—	—	1701
—	—	[<i>Stadtholderate in</i> <i>abeyance, 1702-48]</i>	—	1702
—	—	—	—	1705
—	—	—	—	1711
Frederick William I	—	—	—	1713
—	—	—	—	1714
—	—	—	—	1715
—	—	—	Ulrica [<i>in</i> 1720 <i>m.</i> Frederick of Hesse, who then <i>became king</i>]	1718
—	Catherine I	—	—	1725
—	Peter II	—	—	1727
Frederick II [<i>Great</i>]	Anna	—	—	1730
—	Ivan VI	—	—	1740
—	Elizabeth	—	—	1741
—	—	—	—	1742
—	—	—	—	1745
—	—	—	—	1746
—	—	William IV	—	1748
—	—	William V	Adolphus Frederick	1751
—	—	—	—	1759
—	—	—	—	1760
—	{ Peter III Catherine II [<i>the</i> <i>Great</i>]	—	—	1762
—	—	—	—	1765
—	—	—	Gustavus III	1771
Frederick William II	—	—	—	1774
—	—	—	—	1786
—	—	—	—	1788
—	—	—	—	1790
—	—	—	Gustavus IV	1792

The Old Standing Constant
FROME Flying-Waggon,
In THREE DAYS,

SETS out with Goods and Passengers from *Frome* for *London*, on Monday the 15th of April, 1745, and will be at the King's-Arms-Inn at Holborn-Bridge every Wednesday following, by 12 at Noon ; from whence it will set out on Thursday morning, by One o'Clock, for Amesbury, Shrewton, Chilterne, Heytsbury, Warminster, and all Places adjacent, and will be at *Frome* on Saturday by 12 o'Clock at Noon. Passengers to pay Eight Shillings each. Perform'd by,

JOSEPH CLAVEY

Attendance is constantly given at the King's-Arms-Inn at Holborn-Bridge aforesaid, to take in Goods and Passengers Names ; but no Money, Plate, Bank Notes, or Jewels, will be insur'd unless deliver'd as such.

The other Waggon keep their Stage as usual, and call at the White-Bear-Inn in Piccadilly coming in and going out.

